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ABSTRACT

This book represents the culmination of a twelve-month management training and development program conducted by the New England Teacher Corps Network for its project directors and staff. Wesley Brown and Perry Zirkel trace the organizational evolution of Teacher Corps projects. William Smith presents a theoretical analysis of the management system requirements needed to facilitate desired school change. Roland Goddu presents a comprehensive analysis of management technologies and their uses. Thomas Wolfe defines some of the operational and value issues that should be considered in the process of evaluating, selecting, and applying management technologies. Gerald Pine presents an analysis of the ideologies hidden in systematic management and the "soft" technology of organizational development. H. W. Meyers presents a model for the management of collaboration in the governance of Teacher Corps projects. Robert Ho presents an analysis of collaboration and discusses its potential for use as a central integrating principle for project organizational design and direction. Robert Henderson discusses the theory of networks and draws on the experience of the New England Network to cite learnings regarding the organization of effective networks. (Author/MLF)

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Management Systems in Teacher Corps Projects

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Management Systems in Teacher Corps Projects

Editor: Robert C. Henderson

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INTRODUCTION

Since the inception of Teacher Corps in 1965, the structure and organization of its projects have evolved significantly. Early projects, primarily concerned with the pre-service education of interns, were simply organized and required little management skill or knowledge to direct. Current projects, however, have none of this simplicity. They are characterized by multiple constituencies, work sites, and role groups. The program formats require the simultaneous maintenance of several activity themes and the required activities of on-going evaluation and documentation. In fact, the projects have become so sophisticated that many role group members have had to assume significant management responsibilities both to coordinate their programs and to insure the necessary interface between their areas and their projects.

In the short span of four years the structure, organization, and management requirements of Teacher Corps projects have evolved from something resembling a Volkswagen to a Turbo-Porsche. With this evolution comes the need, among project directors, for greater knowledge and skill in the application of management technologies to their projects. The discussion of that application is the purpose of this book.

This book represents the culmination of a twelve-month management training and development program conducted by the New England Teacher Corps Network, for its project directors and staff. The chapters focus on a range of management issues, however the central concern is the application (and implication) of management technologies to Teacher Corps projects. The chapters contained are:

1. *"An Overview of Management's Changing Role in Teacher Corps Projects," by Wesley Brown and Perry Zierkel. The authors trace the organizational evolution of Teacher Corps projects and the resulting need for the increased use of management technologies in their direction.*

2. *"Managing the Change Process in Low Income Schools." by William Smith. In an interesting juxtaposition of theory and practice, this chapter defines the operational issues of the school change process and presents a theoretical analysis of the management system requirements needed to facilitate desired change.*

3. *"An Application of Systematic Management Techniques In Teacher Corps Projects," by Roland Goddu. This chapter presents a comprehensive analysis of management technologies, their uses in the organization and direction of these technologies to projects.*

4. *"An Application of Systematic Management Techniques In Teacher Corps Projects: A Response," by Thomas Wolfe. In response to Goddu's article, Wolfe defines some of the operational and value issues which should be considered in the process of evaluating, selecting, and applying management technologies.*

5. *"Management for Change: Ideologies of Consensus and Conflict," by Gerald Pine. This chapter presents an analysis of the ideologies hidden in systematic management and the "soft" technology of organizational development. The author suggests there are fundamental and significant problems which should be understood in order to increase the benefit of these technologies to projects.*

6. *"The Search for Entente: A Model for Collaboration," by H. W. Meyers. In this chapter, Meyers presents a model for the management of collaboration in the governance of Teacher Corps projects.*

7. *"Collaboration in Teacher Education: A Teacher Corps Concept in Search of Transitive Meanings," by Robert Ho. This chapter presents an analysis of collaboration and discusses its potential for use as a central integrating principle for project organizational design and direction.*

8. *"Organizing Effective Networks," by Robert Henderson. This chapter discusses the theory of networks and draws on the experience of the New England Network to cite learnings regarding the organization of effective networks.*

The challenges presented by the complex structures and goals of the five-year projects demand that we develop our knowledge of management. It is our hope that this book will contribute to that development and to an ongoing discussion of the application of management technologies to Teacher Corps projects.

Robert C. Henderson
Editor

Wesley Brown was director of the 11th Cycle Teacher Corps Project at Keene State College and the Marlborough Public Schools in New Hampshire. He is presently the special education department chairman at Lehigh University in Bethlehem, Pennsylvania.

Perry Zirkel was a past Teacher Corps director at the University of Hartford. He now serves as Dean of the School of Education at Lehigh University in Bethlehem, Pennsylvania.

1

An Overview of Management's Changing Role in Teacher Corps Projects

By

Wesley Brown and Perry Zirkel

This chapter will examine the changing roles of Teacher Corps project managers through three phases in the 1970's. While the primary goals of the Teacher Corps legislation have remained unchanged, complex organizational standards and complicated developmental activities have evolved, placing additional demands on project personnel. Each additional facet of Teacher Corps projects requires not only its own management plan and procedures, but also appropriate interfacing with all other aspects of the project operations.

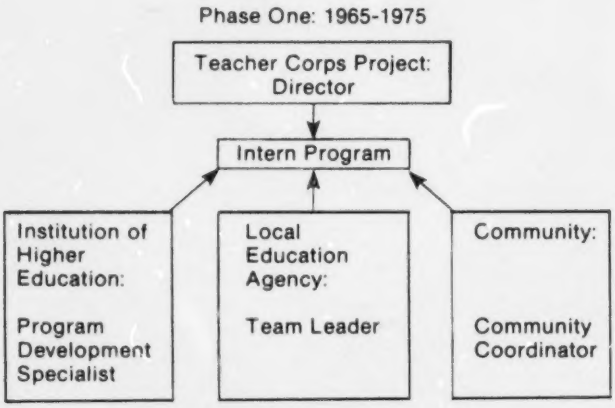
Transition Within Teacher Corps

Phase One

The first nine cycles of Teacher Corps Projects, ending in 1975, focused on providing extensive preservice teacher training. These cycles were commonly characterized by four to six teams of interns working at the same school level, each supervised by a Team Leader in a separate school site. It was for the interns' training program that the project's resources were allocated among the Institution of Higher Education (IHE), the Local Education Agency (LEA), and the Community. Instructionally, the interns constituted the project's primary target group. However,

they were viewed at the IHE as a special group receiving their certification and degree-program coursework, primarily on campus, within a Competency-Based Teacher Education (CBTE) context. The recruitment and selection of interns were facilitated by regional centers funded for this purpose. Additionally, technical assistance was provided by certain designated projects through ad hoc arrangements by Teacher Corps/Washington. For example, bilingual technical assistance was delivered by the Teacher Corps project at the University of New Mexico. Project directors were often temporary, non-tenure track "change agents" attached externally to the IHE. Management considerations revolved around the instruction, supervision and support of interns, as Figure 1 indicates.

FIGURE I

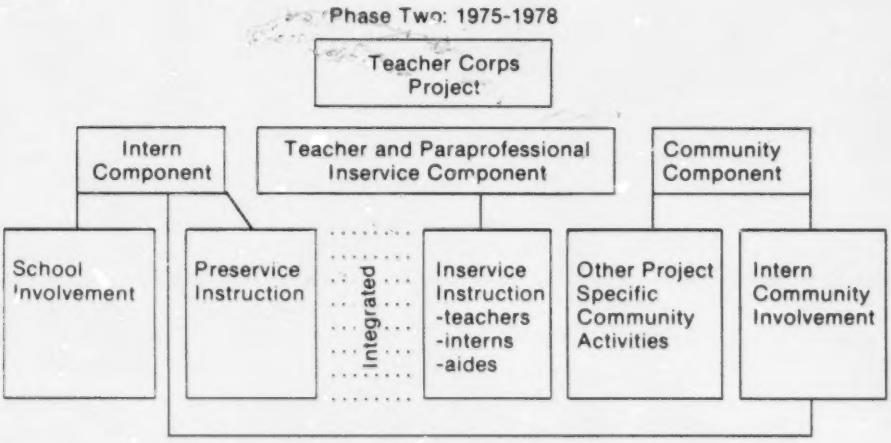


For example, the Seventh Cycle Project at the University of Hartford had four teams of seven interns each distributed among three elementary target schools. The interns pursued a program leading to teacher certification in Elementary Education and either a B.A. (for those with two years of previous college coursework) or a M.Ed. (for those entering with a bachelor's degree). Each intern was assigned to a cooperating teacher and a community agency for succeeding practicum periods. Inservice education for cooperating teachers and community activities for parents were incidental extras, secondary to the instructional program.

Phase Two

With the Tenth Cycle, starting in 1975, projects were limited to a single school site and a small intern team. A change in the legislative mandate refocused a majority of the project's activities on the inservice training of the existing school instructional staff. Projects were to integrate the initial training of interns with the continuing education of experienced teachers and teacher-aides. Concurrently, the community involvement of interns in phase one projects evolved into a broader set of school-community relationships designated as the community component. The typical organizational structure for these second-level projects is illustrated in Figure 2.

FIGURE 2



During this intermediate phase, project managers were required to respond to a more complex governance structure. The inclusion of each additional project component brought more specialized staff, more target groups, and more resource allocation problems. Projects were organized around one of five training strategies: Training Complex, Competency-Based Teacher Education, Training for Implementing Alternative School Designs, Interdisciplinary Training Approaches, and

Training for the Systematic Adoption of Research Findings. The dual requirements of on-site training and the shifted focus to inservice training caused the balance of power and focus of activities to move toward the LEA. The membership and functions of the project's Steering Committee were specified by Teacher Corps/Washington to promote collaboration between the institutions in joint project activities. Additionally, with the Eleventh Cycle in 1976, there was a clear expectancy for project instructional activities in the specific content areas of multicultural education and assisting students with learning and/or behavorial problems (exceptional children) in regular school classrooms.

New staffing roles were created to respond to these more complex circumstances. For example, the Tenth Cycle project at the University of Hartford included a full-time resource teacher to increase the clinical services of the inservice training component, a full-time project coordinator to represent the interests of the LEA and Community, a half-time documentor to facilitate the demonstration-dissemination functions of the project, and a one-third time exceptional child component coordinator to strengthen the diagnostic-prescriptive training activities of the project.

Evolving Management Obligations

Project managers were faced with more elaborate structures with multiple components. Developing inservice activities proved to be significantly more problematic than operating preservice intern programs, which had represented only a moderate departure from current college and university training efforts. The instructional program for interns became more awkward to implement because of the limited group size and the mandate to integrate their instruction with that of the experienced teachers.

Directors could no longer be involved with each aspect of project activities. Staff members became managers in addition to, or to the exclusion of, their previous roles as implementors. Delegation of responsibility, division of efforts, coordination, communication and collaboration became crucial for effective operations.

Teacher Corps/Washington supported the development and use of Management Information Systems (MIS) for the development, scheduling, and documentation of specific project tasks. MIS's provided various methodologies for tracking project com-

ponents, goals, objectives, specific activities, expected outcomes, completion dates and responsible personnel. Directors, in some cases, became formal monitors and increased their coordinating role in addition to the usual project problem-solving and personnel management functions. With projects now operating as demonstrations of educational improvements through the Teacher Corps model, extensive documentation of project activities, dissemination of project outcomes, and the involvement of projects with external evaluation all provided additional components for staffing and activity. Directors became facilitators of the various staff members who had greatly increased responsibility for the project components and activities.

The intricate process of collaboration on all major policy and project operations evolved as an arduous but critical task as the adaption and institutionalization of project functions became additional criteria for success. To increase project success in these areas, a period of three to six months of initial planning became a quasi-regulation for project operations. Activities of the Recruitment and Technical Resource Centers (RTR) continued and in 1974 regional networks, overseen by project directors from that area, became the primary source of outside assistance to local projects. Eleventh and Twelfth Cycles also received the management assistance of the Site Specific Orientation Program (SSOP), which provided assistance during the mandated planning period.

Managment and Program '78

Phase Three

In the summer of 1978, Teacher Corps begins its third major phase since its founding in 1965. The increased activities and operations of recent years will be compounded once again. The participatory process has been extended more fully into the community through dictated membership in policy formulation bodies and a separately administered budget for community-related operations. The project may now service the total range of school personnel, including administrators, across multiple school sites that represent a feeder system. A new addition to meet these programmatic changes, as well as locally developed objectives, will involve the retraining of regular IHE faculty

members operating as the primary participants in Program '78 projects, rather than external temporary personnel.

For the first time, substantial regulations were provided with specific proposal criteria for the Program '78 projects. Governance must now be provided through a tripartite Policy Board with the IHE Dean, LEA Superintendent, and Community Council Chairperson mandatorily acting as principal members along with other locally selected representatives and staff. A proposed organization pattern for a Program '78 project prepared by Lehigh University is shown in Figure 3.

A final addition to the new proposals was the requirement of a formalized management plan. Activities are to be specified with their sequence, timing, resources, and staffing. The management plan must show how the specified activities contribute to project objectives. This plan will carry significant weight in the selection of Program '78 proposals.

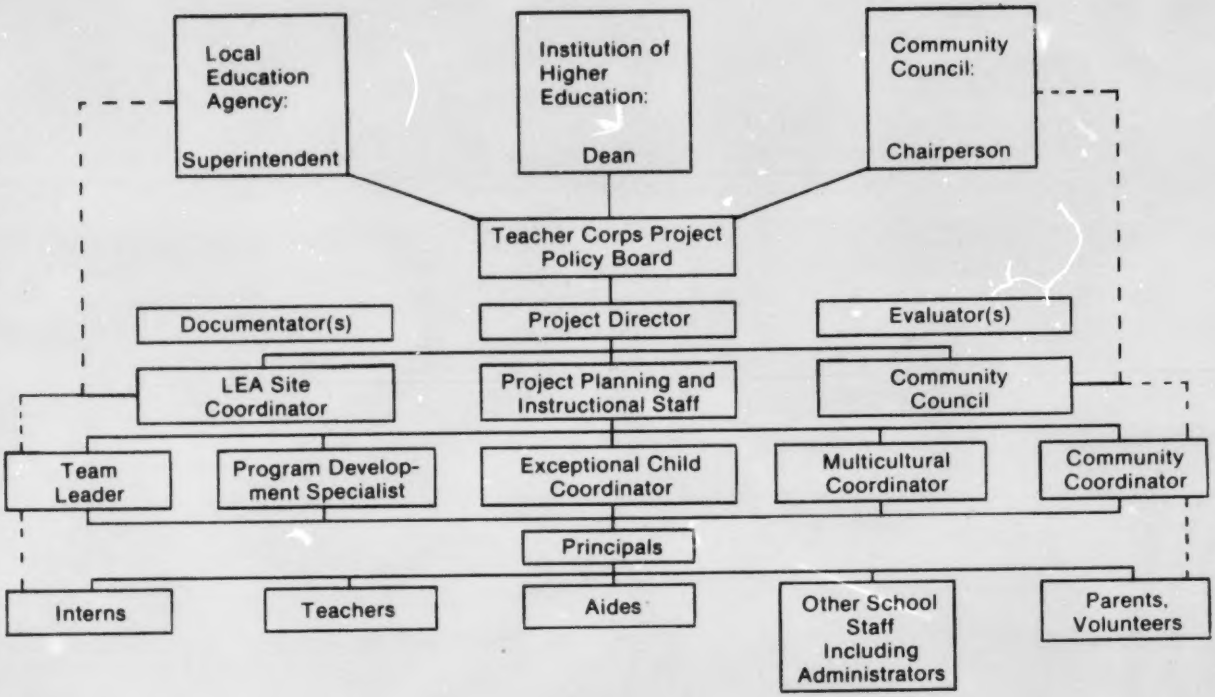
All of these newly specified activities would compress far too much activity into a project if it were not for an extension of the project length from two to five years. A full year of planning separate from implementation provides an opportunity for the Program '78 projects to accommodate the complex processes and developmental activities now required in a Teacher Corps Project.

Conclusion

With the new regulations, the position of management in Teacher Corps projects has become a critical and complex factor at the center of an evolving model. The application of the technologies of management, including various forms of MIS should promote significant advancements in the operations of Program '78. However, to reach this point, ongoing external management assistance must not only be provided, but operationally required. These management operations could be infused in projects after their selection through an extended SSOP program or specialized Network services. The Teacher Corps projects have provided important opportunities for IHE's to refine the content and format of their teacher education programs in response to changing circumstances. They will also bring increasingly important lessons for IHE's in terms of managing systems for delivering teacher education effectively.

FIGURE 3

Phase Three: 1978-On



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2

Managing the Change Process In Low-Income Schools: From Practice To Theory

By

William L. Smith

The task of placing in perspective both a practical and theoretical view of what one has to consider in the administration of low-income schools is not an easy one. Such an effort required time to reflect not only upon problems that educational personnel experience daily in the schools of our nation but also upon a means to express a framework that allows for a detached examination of the same practical and sometime emotional problems in a different kind of way.

An attempt has been made to reverse the usual order of exploration, i.e. theory into practice, by starting from what I know best and worry about most — the practical analysis of and solution to real problems in the teaching-learning process.

Practical Considerations

Twice in the last two decades national and international events have forced the American public schools to be aware that they are part of a universe undergoing dynamic change, that changes and reverberations beyond the horizon are quickly felt in the school. In both instances, the federal government has served as the catalytic agent by which the schools made a response to world events.

Sputnik was the first event. It brought from those outside the professional field of education a hue and cry that our schools

were not able to meet the demands of modern technology. This resulted in the federal government providing the funds for programs in science and mathematics curriculum and staff development. New ideas and innovations were created resulting in social and technological changes in the school that still have to be fully assessed.

The New Frontier and Great Society programs of the Kennedy and Johnson administrations, which drew attention to the extent of poverty in the midst of affluence, were the second phenomenon. Of greater significance, they exposed the devastating effect of the symbiotic relationship between poverty and educational opportunity. A main part of the Great Society effort was in providing federal compensatory educational programs for the inner-city and rural "disadvantaged."

The juxtaposition of these events spanned a critical problem. Changes were brought about by new programs developed to counter the challenge of Sputnik, even though there is no hard evidence of the extent or kind of changes made. Evidence gleaned from innovative and crash programs developed in compensatory education to counter the challenge of poverty is even less extensive, but the conclusions being drawn essentially have been negative.

Perhaps the difference lies in the initial targets of the two programs. In the case of Sputnik, the focus was upon the most talented students receiving more and better scientific knowledge in more and better ways. It made the best better. Later, the focus was expanded in an attempt to reach all children at every ability level with more and better scientific knowledge, but the strategies were inappropriate.

Compensatory knowledge focused upon students who had been and are deprived of both experiential background and educational opportunity, especially in the inner-city and low-income population schools — schools that had long since fallen into educational despair. This condition of despair was produced because the school was reluctant to accept the blame for low achievement. It was a commonly held belief among educators that responsibility for low achievement rested with the parents and students, not with the schools.

The reluctance of the school to admit and recognize the nature or cause of the problems prevented societal awareness of needs. Society could not demand that schools provide changes in their educational program if unaware. Even when the problems were partially exposed and society did respond with federal

ESEA Title I legislation, the first educational prescription for change, as interpreted by most local educators, was directed at compensating for parent failures. Efforts were unsuccessful. What finally emerged from these efforts was the realization that low achievement was recognized to be an effect of instruction and the educational personnel involved. To adequately deal with this problem, changes have to be made not only in the presentation of specific academic disciplines, but also in the very structure and organization of the school. Changes in the role of administrators, in the morale of teachers, and in the *esprit de corps* and retraining of the faculty also must be considered in the development of educational change strategies.

Until recently, there has been little empirical investigation of the variables involved in the educational change process and problems in schools. Likewise, there has not been a great deal of observation or description of what actually occurs in schools as they undergo change of any sort.

This chapter is based on the belief that programs introduced through federal funding cannot by themselves affect pupil achievement. The really decisive factors affecting achievement are more fundamental changes in the design and utilization of the school structure and organization. These changes cannot be accomplished without training strategies directed at the values and skills of those who are accountable for providing and/or delivering services to achieve educational objectives. The premise of this chapter, then, is that while federal or non-federal money for new or innovative programs is important for change; change is not automatically guaranteed by funds alone and is clearly a slow process.

If one were to think of a continuum with (a) federal program intervention at one end and (b) performance change at the other, there is no direct cause and effect relationship between (a) and (b). There is a series of intervening or moderator variables, such as organizational climate and organizational behavior which are mutually interdependent, influencing the relationship.

It is clear that the principal of a school is in a salient leadership position for influencing the management of change. His or her task should be to provide the leadership for effecting change by establishing a climate for change in his or her school.

The principal's leadership behavior involves not only his or her relationships with teachers singularly and collectively, but includes all aspects of school-community life and school management. This means that the nature of the school group and the

community situation encountered have roles in the process. Leadership behavior is, in part, dependent upon the uniqueness of the school-community situation.

How the principal is perceived by the teachers and students is very important because it is often the individual follower who, on the basis of his or her perceptions, accepts or rejects leadership. There is more likelihood for principal effectiveness if he or she is perceived as symbolizing the values and purposes of those he or she leads.

A second moderator variable is the school staff's behavior. How the principal's behavior is perceived affects the reactions and behavior of the staff, which in turn affects children. Without a commitment by a majority of the staff, basic changes cannot be accomplished, and resistance to change may result.

A third moderator variable is the community response. How the principal is perceived by the community is equally important because the extent to which parents respond with positive affectivity is usually a function of their confidence in the principal's leadership and productivity. Two recent surveys of school principals indicate that this matter of community and citizen involvement is of greatest concern to them. The community is both directly and indirectly influenced by the principal's behavior: it responds to what it perceives teachers are doing to their children and to the leadership "image" of the school. In poverty schools, especially, the role of the community has become a critical variable.

The extent of change, then, is seen as a function of the degree of balance achieved among these moderator variables.

Research demonstrates that an atmosphere of collaboration or cooperation encompasses human interpersonal interaction and cohesion. Cohesion refers to the melding of isolates into a group, and, like human interaction, is measurable and interdependent. The entire interaction process is that of organizational behavior. The concept of a cooperative or uncooperative atmosphere is synonymous with the term *climate* of the school. What is absolutely necessary is the development of a spirit of oneness among faculty members themselves and also among the faculty (teachers), administrators (principals), community (parents) and students (children). A feeling of mutual trust is needed, a feeling of being on a voyage toward commonly sought after goals, a feeling of, in Lewin's terms, "interdependence of fate." This sense of interdependence has profound implications for the utilization of the *parity* concept.

The concept of "parity" can be viewed as a vehicle for achieving this trust relationship. *Parity* is defined as the *deliberate, collaborative* or *mutual, decision-making on the part of those rendering services and those receiving services.* It touches on the whole notion of power equalization and focuses on the assumption that people with a personal or an emotional stake in an enterprise will take more care to perfect that enterprise. In the case of a school, the education of children becomes that enterprise. School staffs deliver the service while the community delivers the clients to receive that service. Both staff and community have a major investment in the enterprise and must mutually decide outcomes.

The *concept of parity* as a strategy for the development of trust relationships among the school staff, the administration, students and the community has many implications. Foremost of these is the reality that there is a dearth of empirical evidence supporting a parity position, the process required to achieve this type of relationship, or the product achieved from such a relationship. For one thing, the internal dynamics of a school as an organization have not been examined in terms of political, social, and economic power equalization indices among the staff, administration, students and community.

For another, professional educators have not attempted to develop theoretical frameworks that would accommodate the analysis of power transfers. There is evidence from other disciplines which provides theoretical underpinnings to support new school management strategies. Both community organization theory and management theory provide this base. Each has importance, but for our purposes, organizational management theory suggests a more appropriate framework for considering a parity relationship and its implication for pupil performance.

Before considering the theoretical implications of parity, it is necessary to consider the practical implications of parity. Any one of four parties can be threatened by the restructuring of decision-making power arrangements. Foremost of the parties threatened, of course, is the school principal who sees himself or herself as having the most to lose. Unless a principal has an emergent philosophic orientation, he/she will fail to see that he/she has the most to gain in the restructuring of the organization to have greater teacher and community involvement in the total educational process. What tends to happen is that the administrator sees the community as desiring to take over complete control of his/her school setting. He/she has not been

trained to recognize alternative and new management systems that would allow for the accommodation of new input. He/she has not been trained to recognize alternative and new management systems that would allow for the accommodation of new input. He/she sees the teachers assuming his/her power and fails to recognize that he/she as a principal can define responsibility and power in new ways — ways that allow for real and authentic role responsibility that fosters a genuine criterion for accountability. It is necessary, though, to provide supportive assistance to the person designated as responsible for the school's organizational functions.

The emphasis on the administrator's role has been intentionally developed because of the knowledge that the principal, as chief executive in the present system, is in the most strategic position to emphasize, de-emphasize or neutralize the effect of any program. If he/she does not encourage, support, or realize the potential of a new program in his/her school, it cannot succeed. Consequently, the principal becomes the prime target for attention if he/she is to provide the climate that will generate staff, student, and community relationships in new and different ways.

Teachers and other members of the school staff are the second most threatened group. They have been accustomed to new and innovative programs being imposed without their input and without the proper training for those persons responsible for the implementation of new programs. A case in point is the Title I programs developed in school systems' central offices and then passed down to teachers. Both orientation and training must be developed to provide school staffs with an understanding that they, of the three groups — administrators, school staff, and community — stand to gain in moving toward the facilitation of greater pupil performance. Teachers from both the National Education Association and the American Federation of Teachers are openly resisting, through their organizations, the increased use of innovations and technology until teachers have the training for and understanding of the value and benefit from the use of such programs.

We must continue to develop and provide the vehicle to free and unleash the latent potential and abilities of those school staff members already operating in the school setting. The evidence gleaned from the research documented in the publication *Do Teachers Make a Difference,*[1] indicates that the teacher is the most critical force influencing children's behavior outside the

home. We have not provided the necessary understandings and latitude to allow school staffs, to the extent possible, to accommodate either society's changing and demanding requirements, or the immediate needs of segments of our population. Instead, teachers are trained in university course work to use techniques and develop skills with reference to curricular designs and instructional decisions.

In the case of urban and rural poverty schools, especially in urban inner cities, the history of education documents the fostering of a system that is not accountable for what it says is intended and what it actually does. Staffs tended to perpetuate what one might kindly call the status-quo-syndrome, which proved to be irrelevant and unresponsive to the existing conditions and needs. It becomes essential to provide a structure that embraces and fulfills the dignity and responsibility of the teacher as a professional, accountable for the achievement of educational goals and sensitive to the needs of the community and the most precious product of that community, the children.

This structure, or any other structure designed to foster a sense of worth, positive self-esteem, achievement motivation, and a firm sense of reality for children, must be predicated on the grounds that a school staff must have the confidence to facilitate learning that achieves these objectives. It stands to reason that children, as well as adults, long ago learned that it is not what one says that is important, but what one does. It is necessary, therefore, for school staff members who are behavior models to possess a sense of worth, well-being, dignity, and confidence if children are to learn these traits. Unless it is recognized that retraining is the one vehicle by which teachers are able to grow from where they are to where they should be, the schooling process of children is doomed and teachers will continue to be gatekeepers, unresponsive and inadequately prepared to deal with reality.

It becomes extremely important that teachers do not perceive training as a threatening experience to force them to change when they do not see the need for change. Training cannot be presented as medicine that does not taste good, but is needed. Training must grow out of a perceived need by those who have been engaged in the process of assessing students, as well as their problems and needs. Assessing problems and needs, in fact, is a training process in itself requiring specific strategies. The research literature on the education of the disadvantaged, on curriculum development, and on change as well as

the aforementioned management organization theory and community organization theory are additional inputs available for these training processes. Further training strategies are also required for teachers to understand, to accept, and to work with the school system administration and the community in a parity relationship.

As strange as it may seem, teachers are inclined to view themselves at the lowest end of the totem pole of the three groups with regard to the number and types of constraints imposed upon them. This view is especially significant in urban, inner-city schools. Teachers here view the community as not understanding what is professionally required and view administrators and supervisors as not understanding the reality of the environment in which they work. The concept of parity connotes power-equalization in decision-making. Neither teachers nor administrators have been accustomed to sharing. In many instances, teachers have not wanted the responsibility for sharing because being accountable for producing a learning climate in these deprived schools has been left to the principal. Teachers tend to justify this behavior by pointing out that administrators have the power and, therefore, should have the responsibility. In reality, teachers have the ultimate responsibility for pupil performance but feel that they have no decision-making power; therefore, they cannot affect change in this type of powerless relationship. If becomes crucial that teachers have a perspective on organizations, an area that has traditionally been reserved for advanced management candidates.

My experience working with teachers and with the community indicates two rather interesting phenomena. In most instances the community does not wish to take over and run the schools. What does hold the community's interest and commitment is access to information about what the school will deliver in educational programming that is both viable and accountable. If these conditions can be met, then parents will want teachers to be teachers in the true sense of the word: to encourage their children, to motivate them, to open new vistas of opportunities for them, and to treat them with respect, dignity, and warmth. In the urban setting, the history of schooling for children suggests that most parents have reached the point where they feel that the only conceivable way to receive assurances that their needs and desires are being met is to be involved in the process. Parents over and over again articulate their desire for equal access to information regarding what their children are doing and receiv-

ing, what the problems are, and how the school is attempting to meet these problems. If the school staff is not threatened or defensive in its relationship with the community and can deal openly and honestly with it, then the community will positively respond. It will function as all other communities historically have functioned, whether urban, rural, or suburban, by supporting and protecting the school and its staff from outside, or even inside, negative, physical and environmental forces acting upon the school.

The second phenomenon relates to the teacher. Teachers are more prone to attempt to provide for the children's needs that are consistent with the community when they are confident that they know what these needs are and when they are able to know how to deliver the services. Teachers will learn to deliver services when they are assured that the central office administrative and supervisory staff and/or local school administration are committed to these principles. Teachers in poverty schools often have suffered from a sense of "directionlessness" and powerlessness. Frustration is compounded by the teachers' perception that the task is so overwhelming that it requires drastic and unknown steps. If teachers are given the opportunity to feel secure that what they are doing has relevance and is understood and appreciated by both the administration and the community, then teacher behavior is modifiable. If, on the other hand, this sense of accomplishment and personal worth is not perceived by teachers, they remain in the dormant "gatekeeper" state. It takes an extensive and intensive period of time for teachers to develop confidence in themselves and in what they are doing. The present situation in poverty schools does not provide the time for confidence building. Most young people today enter the field of education with a social commitment and a strong sense of determination to effect change, but they neither know what they are doing nor how they should be doing it. Hence, frustration and despair result.

Training institutions have not made the transition from the traditional to an emergent educational orientation; hence the great disparity still exists between what is taught and learned at the university and what is deemed necessary to be taught and learned in the schools. Changes are required in the thinking and action of training institutions with regard to course offerings and strategies for integrating the teaching of new clientele with that of the existing school staff. We have just touched the surface, and much needs to be done to help school administrators and university personnel understand these new needs.

Teachers and administrators have worked to maintain their "professionalism" by excluding involvement of the community and parents who appear unresponsive to PTA meetings. Now they are about to find that not only are parents and community involved, but in a power-equalization position as well. This is the target population; not kids, but, educational personnel. These are the ones who must examine *how they feel about themselves, how they feel about what they are doing*, and, even more importantly, *how they feel about the children with whom they are working daily*. We must build a rationale which includes systemic strategies to deal with training approaches that unleash the latent potential in teachers to affect change in pupil performance. The rationale must include strategies that sensitize the community to the needs of educational personnel. Unless these training strategies are included, the incumbents in the parity process will be working at cross purposes, not because they have a difference in motivations but simply because there is a difference in their base of understanding of others' needs.

The third group threatened by the power-equalization relationship includes those persons in the organization's superordinate structure, namely supervisors, subject area specialists, and central office administrators. Many have been part of the organization much longer than teachers or administrators at the local school level. They tend to be steeped in the tradition of "days gone by" and in the principle that "there must be academic excellence for its own sake" rather than as a strategy to meet the utilitarian needs of the people in the target group. Many are not aware of or do not use a strategy for increased local autonomy that relinquishes the prevalent authority structure of the superordinate and shares it with the subordinate staff. This strategy includes the superordinate staff in an advisory capacity and in a working relationship that is quite different from that practiced in the past. It will be difficult to achieve, but it is extremely vital because the decentralization of power is focused at the local school building site.

The fourth group that will be threatened by the power-equalization parity model ironically is the community. The present evidence indicates that in the urban poverty schools, especially, genuine and authentic sharing of decision-making has been absent. LaVerne Cunningham's paper on "A Viable Plan for Community Control" attests to the fact that those efforts that have been attempted (i.e. Ocean Hill-Brownsville, IS201, and others) did not have real power-equalization in the forms of fiscal

control, joint community and school staff decision-making, or a systemic approach to the effort. These efforts tended to be overladen with emotionalism and lacked the development of order and clarity of purpose.

We have just begun to receive evidence that the U.S. Office of Education's demonstration program, Urban Rural School Development was able to provide a structure for the involvement of school and community collaboration that not only was a benefit to the learning of children but also to the welfare and needs of teachers and staffs in those respective schools.[2]

The intent of an appropriate design is to provide a constructive and orderly process by which all persons involved in the educational enterprise may make a relevant and significant contribution. In this light, then it becomes necessary to establish training programs for community participants; first, in an overall community education program to provide for receptivity to the whole design, and then in a specific training strategy to accommodate those who will be community representatives and intimately involved in the decision-making process. There is the need for the inclusion of community persons in some kinds of organizational training and in small and large group process training so their level of competence and confidence will be high as they participate in the decision-making process with professional educators. This should result in the development of values convergence for "lay" and professionals. If this is not accomplished, then a great deal of time will have been spent at the emotional and gut level of problem identification rather than at a higher level of problem resolution. Once the issues of conflict for these four groups are resolved, then the incumbents can get on with the business of climate development to produce performance change.

We are dealing here with authentic collaboration which clearly has a major political process included. Educators have tended to shy away from anything perceived to be political because it has a negative connotation for them. This can no longer be the case. One cannot and should not avoid viewing education in a political context.

Theoretical and Conceptual Considerations

The effort to conceptualize a theoretical framework for examining new management requirements can be accomplished by utilizing the models suggested from two sources. This theo-

retical framework is drawn from the field of organizational theory which emphasizes the system theory approach. The first source is John Seiler's[3] input-organizational behavior-output model developed from organizational behavior theory. The second source is Robert Chin's[4] general analytic model developed from social change theory.

This framework posits a relationship between federal intervention, climate, and pupil performance. The rationale for such a relationship draws upon research findings in industrial management by Davis,[5] Bennis,[6] Likert,[7] Argyris,[8] and March.[9]

System theory is based on the assumption that events are caused by many forces working in complex relation to each other. This assumption embodies the idea of multiple causation and complex inter-relation of forces; hence, the use of the word "system." Seiler[10] states the four characteristics or properties of systems are:

1. Interdependent forces underlie behavior.
2. Equilibrium, or the tendency toward a balance of forces, more often is dynamic than static. Equilibrium is an assumption about how the parts of the client system fit together and how they change.[11]
3. The feedback process or input-output mechanism is the operation of an information loop which alerts the system to the effects of its behavior and permits modification of system behavior. The feedback process is the means by which equilibrium is achieved, and is, of course, a function of a cybernetic system and not found in all systems.
4. One variable is a function of another if its magnitude varies with the magnitude of the other. By definition, systems are composed of units whose properties are in functional relationship with each other. Behavior must be functional for something else.

In theoretical system theory, everything is related to everything else in such a way that a change in any one element produces a change in everything else.[12] People interested in human organizations need a more limited and operable idea of systems; therefore, "natural systems" are used by behavioral scientists.

Natural systems are sub-units of the total system and are described by the fact that the relationships among the parts of sub-units are rather intimate. This means that a change in one of those parts has an effect on the other parts of the sub-unit which is of vastly greater magnitude in terms of intensity and perva-

siveness than the effects of a change in the same part of a sub-unit on things outside the boundary of the sub-unit. A school may be a system or a subsystem. In this chapter, the school is viewed as a system with the internal organizational structure of the school viewed as sub-systems.

Natural systems deal with the idea of a hierarchy of sub-systems which permits one to look at the relatively limited number of events taking place within a particular system and between the relatively limited parts of that system. One doesn't have to be concerned with knowing about every potentially relevant system except insofar as they impinge on the internal working of the systems one is trying to influence. The concept of "system" frees one from the compulsion to oversimplify by making the complexity that is characteristic of human behavior in organizations conceptually manageable.[13]

Systems may be open or closed. An open system is related to, and interacts with, its environment; a closed system is not related to, nor does it interact with, the environment. An educational system is presumed to be an open system. Those within the system interact and respond to the community's demands for the continuation of the cultural heritage. If the educational institution does not respond to community needs or becomes indifferent to those needs, it is said to be a closed system.

One theoretical systems model which appears to be appropriate for our use deals with the organization, the individual, and the environment. In this model community and environment are synonymous. It states that:

1. The organization establishes and attains purposes wanted by people in the environment, and those people in the environment support the organization that satisfies their wants.
2. The organization satisfies the individual's wants, and the individual as a loyal member of the organization accepts and facilitates the attainment of the purposes of the organization.[14]

According to Barnard,[15] one of the earliest theorists, the organization is a binding element common to all systems. He hypothesized that the continuance of a successful organization depends upon two conditions, effectiveness and efficiency.

1. **Effectiveness** is the accomplishment of the purpose of organization which required processes relating the system to the environment.

2. **Efficiency** is the satisfaction of the individual motives which required processes relating to the creation and allocation of satisfaction among individuals.

Bennis[16] states that the single assumption of organizational theory is that "authority is the central indispensable means of managerial control." Effective leadership depends primarily on mediating between the individual and the organization in such a way that both can obtain maximum satisfaction. This practice in organizations is that of administration.[17]

In accord with system theory, the leader is conceptualized as an actor in a social system interacting with the environment. For example, the principal or superintendent, as leader, must deal with the community while teachers may confine their interests and activities to matters only within the school. Teachers may feel that interacting with the community is a function they neither have nor want, often the case in inner-city and rural schools in the past. Since the leader always is an actor in the organization, it is extremely difficult to distinguish between principles of organization and principles of administration.[18]

Because the single assumption of organizational theory is the question of authority and power, the discussion is focused upon the organization's officially designated leader, in our case the principal or the educational manager, who is responsible for the introduction and implementation of the system's change forces and the management of change.

The whole organization tends to be affected by the dynamic force of change in any part of it. All elements of the social system are involved — its people, formal organization, informal organization, operating environment, communication patterns, decision-making, and patterns of cooperation. The system is operating in some sort of equilibrium by which the parts are harmoniously related to each other.[19] Therefore, the behavior of the members of the organization, the culture and tradition of the organization, and the pattern of action together comprise the organizational climate for people. The perception a member has of that climate produces its images in his/her mind.

The climate of an organization originally was derived from the philosophy and goals of those who joined together to create it. Persons' social, psychological, and economic needs; group wants; institution objectives reflecting community needs; and leader interest and style all integrated into a working social system. Public schools today are not created by people who join together, even though there is historical evidence that this was the case originally.

Organizational behavior, then, can most adequately be thought of as occurring in a system of interdependent forces, each of which can be analyzed and set in the perspective of other forces. This framework is appropriate for the analysis of behavior occurring in any kind of organizational setting, whether it is superior-subordinate, staff-line, interdivisional, or small work group.[20]

For our purposes the school, as a system, is conceived as an open, living social system with its internal organizational structures (i.e. elementary or departmental) functioning as subsystems, and the central school district staff and Board of Education functioning as the super-system. The principal or educational manager, as the officially designated leader, and all other members of the school are conceptualized as interacting with the community. The degree to which this relationship is one of trust and openness is a function of the degree of existing parity. The designated leader, whether elected or appointed, is conceived to be responsible for the school's organizational climate. He/she sets the intellectual, educational, and social tone of the school in his capacity as the officially designated leader.

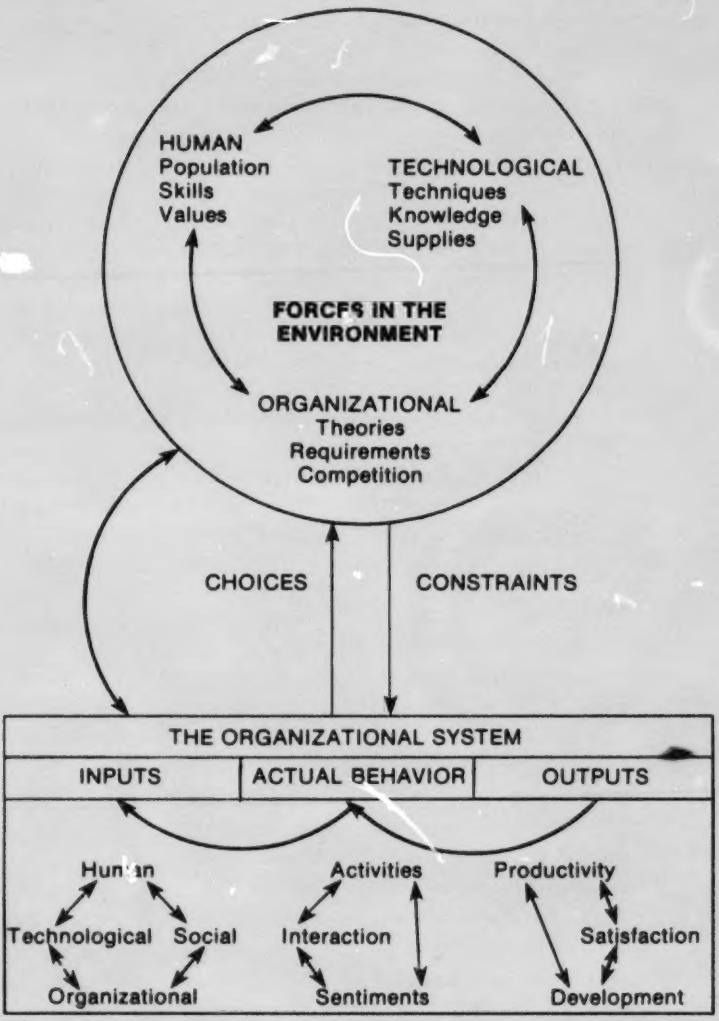
Figure I is a systems model for an industrial organization devised by Seiler to indicate where interdependence between elements of the system exists. It is based on the premise that a system has two kinds of relations with its environment: (1) the environment imposes certain contraints within which the system must ostensibly function; and, (2) systems not only respond to their environments; they also act upon them.

The constraints imposed on a system and the selections which its members make from among those elements which are available to it in the environment for the purposes of understanding human behavior in organizations may be thought of as involving three types of input variables: (a) human, (b) technological, and (c) organizational. That is, the environment may be conceived as forcing its way or being invited into the system in these three guises; but once inside the system, these three interrelate and produce behavior.

a. The human input variables pertain primarily to the particular people with their assortment of personal qualities such as skills, knowledge, social status, motives, needs, expectations, values, and ways of thinking that they bring with them to the organization.

b. The technological input variables pertain to the type of industry a company is in and the type of technology in

FIGURE 1
Seiler: Elementary Framework for Diagnosing
Human Behavior Organizations
LEGEND ⟷ "In Functional Relationship"



which a work group is engaged. It highly influences the stability of the system environment and thus its internal balance.

c. The organizational input variables pertain to the established goals, product strategy, and the particular procedures used to schedule order, or gather information about performance, its salary levels, incentive systems, and the particular styles of leadership it rewards.

An additional type of input pertains to social structure and norms. These are products of the human, technical, and organizational inputs of the system. Out of this convergence emerges a force which operates in its own right as an important input and behavior determinant. All four of these input variables influence behavior in the system.[21]

Seiler's three categories of actual behavioral elements are: (a) activities, (b) interactions, and (c) sentiments. He claims interdependence among them. Simply stated: (a) people do things — they act; (b) people not only act, but more often than not, they act in relation to other people; and (c) as people act and are acted upon, they develop feelings about what they are doing, about what is being done to them, and about the people with whom they are associated. Each of these variables has great influence on the other.

Seiler's final description in his model of the categories of elements in organizational systems pertains to function and feedback. It contains this underlying assumption: a particular behavior or pattern of behavior or characteristics of these inputs is functional or dysfunctional for the development or continued existence of some other behavior, behavior pattern, input characteristic, or output. Output is stated in terms of productivity, satisfaction, or development. All three of these output variables have feedback effects on the system. While the feedback loop is completed when outputs are fed and digested in the environment, this loop never closes. It is a constant, ongoing process.

Seiler feels that the model in Figure I may be used for making any system idea directly applicable to any organizational situation one studies. He pulls all of the categories and their relationships together and diagrams them to provide a mental picture of how one might arrange the sorting of facts and draw together significant meaning. From this general theory and system model, an operational framework can be developed for examining both

a rationale for managing the organization and intervention strategies for levels of change.

The school as an educational organization has as its designated leader, administrator, principal, educational manager, or any other title derived in the process, one who is responsible for establishing the organizational climate and managing the school's change forces. Most schools use some modified form of the bureaucratic model in terms of structure and foundation. There is a feedback loop functioning, but most often the school has not been receptive to the information received. As an example, achievement tests results seldom are used to diagnose and correct deficiencies. The data simply become a matter of record. Drop-out rates become statistics. Generally, no effort is made to correct the conditions that cause pupils to drop out of school.

One additional general assumption needs development here. This assumption is that the characteristic ways in which administrators behave essentially are the same whether the administrator operates in industry, government, or public education. When the school is compared with other social systems, it may be found that the organizations' objectives and tasks differ and that the situational conditions which influence the behavior of work groups differ, but that the major dimensions of leader behavior are the same.[22]

These facts become rather important when the intent is to provide a design to develop an open system and change. The findings suggest that an organization must have a leader from which direction and power flows. The findings do require that a leader exists, but do not take into account the mechanism used to derive the leader. This seems to have an inherently logical base.

Robert Chin's notion of power equalization, which is the baseline for the parity concept used here, does not discount the leader role in the organization. He emphasizes a collaborative nature for policy decision-making. An interpretation of the power structuring for the implementation of policy or philosophic decisions is left to the practitioner. It raises to the surface a series of alternatives that have implications for the technical assistance and facilitator functions required in the change process.

Figure 2 is a general model for looking at a low-income school that is consistent with the rationale of Seiler's framework. The environmental forces imposed on the school as a system, to which the system is responding, are those conditions that per-

mitted the school to be identified for reform. The feedback loop from the output variable had been completed and the classifications of the system's condition were substantiated.

The following criteria for reform could be envisioned under environmental forces:

1. There would have to be 50% or a higher poverty index level in the school.
2. There would be a history of low standard achievement test scores.
3. There would be a history of high subject matter failure rates.
4. There would be a history of excessive school absence rates.
5. There would be low pupil attitudes toward the school.
6. There would be low teacher morale in the school.
7. There would be evidence of a disparity between the staff priorities and community priorities.
8. There would be a disparity between the school staff's perceptions of alternatives and the communities' perceptions of alternatives.
9. Finally, there would be the assumption that the school as a system is not interacting with, or responding to, its environment, and while it may not be a closed system in toto, it is not a very open system.

Under the input variable there would be: (1) federal or nonfederal funds for some improvement, (2) decentralization; (3) parity; (4) technical assistance, (5) a change agent; and (6) strategies for organizational structural change.

Under the actual behavior variable would be: (1) school climate; (2) needs assessment; (3) objectives defining and implementation; (4) inservice training; (5) attitude and behavior modification; (6) curricular development; and (7) academic training.

Under the output variable would be: (1) morale, (2) school staff cohesion; (3) new instructional strategies; (4) new organizational strategies; (5) new school-community relationships; (6) accountability; and (7) pupil performance in (a) attitude; to self, to school, to community, and work; (b) achievement, and (c) attendance.

Robert Chin[23] provides a very useful way to classify important theories regarding change. This effort still is in the com-

FIGURE 2
An Elementary Framework for Diagnosing Human Behavior in a Low-Income School as an Organization.

ENVIRONMENTAL FORCES	THE ORGANIZATIONAL SYSTEM		
	INPUTS	BEHAVIOR	OUTPUTS
50% or higher poverty index level a history of low standard achievement test scores a history of high subject matter failure rates a history of excessive school absence rates low pupil attitudes toward the school low teacher morale lack of school interaction with environment fostering distrust disparity between Staff and Community perceptions of priorities disparity between Staff and Community perceptions of alternatives school tends not to be an open system	1. Federal Funds 2. Decentralization 3. Parity 4. Technical Assistance 5. Change Agent 6. Strategies for Organization Structure Change	1. School Climate 2. Needs Assessment 3. Objectives defining and implementation 4. Training; In in-service 5. Attitude and behavior modification 6. Academic Training 7. Curriculum Development	1. Morale 2. School Staff Cohesion 3. New Instructional Strategies 4. New Organizational Strategies 5. New school-community relationships 6. Accountability 7. Pupil Performance a. Attitude of self, school, community, work b. Achievement c. Attendance

paratively primitive state of social scientific change analysis; therefore, no perfect fit of any given "theory" likely is to occur. What we do observe is a *general fit.*[24] Nonetheless, there are certain additional basic system concepts that are specific to Chin's theoretical framework.

First is the acceptance that all social systems have boundaries. Internal tensions arising out of the structural arrangements of the system may be called stresses and strains. When tensions accumulate and become sharply opposed to each other, the term "conflict" is used.[25] According to Chin, all real systems have tensions and in the identification of these lies the utility of system analysis for practitioners of change.[26]

In complex modern social systems, several forces for change operate simultaneously and tend to reinforce each other. In the contemporary world, if system parts are to achieve balance at all, if normally is in terms of a shift to a new balanced position, often called "dynamic" or "moving" equilibrium.

A stable situation exists when a system is in equilibrium because the forces which initially produced balance were so powerful that only a very strong new force, initially coming from outside the system, can change the balance. An unstable situation exists when a system is in precarious equilibrium so that small disturbing forces may lead to large and rapid movements toward a new position. Unstable situations, like situations of dynamic equilibrium, tend to be more common today than stable situations or steady states.[27]

The main features of Chin's "tension-reduction" model of social changes are based on the view that change is an abnormality in societal existence.

> A "system" model emphasizes primarily the details of how stability is achieved, and only derivatively how change evolves out of the incompatibility and conflicts of the system. A system model assumes that organization, interdependency, and integration exist among its parts and that change is a derived consequence of how well the parts of the system fit together, or how well the system fits in with other surrounding and interacting systems. The source of change lies primarily in the structural stress and strain externally induced or internally created. The process of change is a process of tension reduction. The goals and directions are emergent from the structures or from imposed sources. Goals are often analyzed as set by "vested interests" of one part of the system. The confronting symp-

tom of some trouble is a reflection of difficulties of adaptability (reaction to environment) or of the ability for adjustment (internal equilibration). The levers or handles available for manipulation are in the "inputs" to the system, especially the feedback mechanisms and in the forces tending to restore a balance in the system. The change agent is treated as separate from the client system.[28]

Chin also has conceptualized a developmental model which has change built into its very framework to a much greater extent than does the system model. This model focuses on growth and directional change rather than upon "the details of how stability is achieved." It is an ideal type which approaches change by focusing upon where a society goes step by step rather than on how and why it goes where it goes (although cause is not necessarily neglected; however, "natural" causes are emphasized in this model.)

As a matter of clarification, (1) the developmental model as a major alternative for analysts to employ when studying social change, and (2) the "ultrastable" system which views change as a natural state and is planned so that change is "built into" overall operations because it is assumed that otherwise the system will perish are both ideal types still in early conceptual development.

For purposes of this chapter, then, a social system model seems to best fit our perspective and specific needs. Change in the system model is a "special case," because the "natural" state of social systems is more nearly one of stability and equilibrium than one of instability and change. It provides the advantage of deeply penetrating the processes of change at a certain point because it assumes structure and stability within some arbitrarily sliced and frozen time period.[29]

The system model of change as a structural model cannot be overemphasized. In systems analysis, everything begins (and ends) structurally. Changes in or of a system are the result of structural inconsistencies and tensions. Because a system is an organization of interlinked components ideally operating for the benefit of the whole in a coordinated manner, change always must be perceived in relationship to this organization and its parts. Change is limited by this structure, no matter what unique configuration it represents.[30] Thus, social change and the participants in social change are largely limited by the existing system structures and the cultural patterns which pervade these structures.

Reitman[31] used Chin's basic classification model for his

interpretation of system analysis, but relied very heavily upon the works of Parsons,[32] LaPiere,[33] Rogers,[34] Eisenstadt,[35] Loomis,[36] and Boskoff[37] to develop the set of principles that finally emerged as the structural-functionalist position on social change. He makes special mention of Miles'[38] influence, in addition to those listed above, for his treatment of the set of principles on innovations in the model.

Chin schematically summarized the system approach as follows:

Assumptions and Approaches to Change in the System Model[39]

1. Content of Stability and Change:
   a. Stability — structural integration of system parts.
   b. Change — derived from structure of system.
2. Causation of Change:
   a. Sources of change — structural stress.
   b. Precipitating causal forces — drive for tension reduction.
3. Goals of Change:
   a. Directions of change — emergent from structure of system.
   b. Set by — "Vested Interests" in system.
4. Intervention:
   a. Confronting symptoms — stresses, strains, and tensions.
   b. Goal of intervening — adjustment and adaption of system parts.
5. Change Agent's Relationship to System:
   a. Change agent's place — outside the "target system."
   b. Change agent's role — External diagnoser (of system tensions) and actor.

Reitman[40] then developed the following set of principles to fit under the preceding major outline:

1. **Content of Stability and Change:**

   a. Stability:

   Stability, in system terms, consists either of a static or a moving equilibrium, though the latter state is much more probable than the former in human systems. In either case, structural integration of

system components and harmony of system operations are the outstanding characteristics.

b. Change:

Socio-cultural changes are derived broadly from the structure of a given social system, whether these structures are well integrated or poorly integrated. Therefore, changes must be contained within basic system values and norms.

Human actors, playing culturally patterned roles, carry out system change within basic system values and norms.

2. **Causation of change:**

a. Source of Change:

Changes of a "closed" social system are intrusive to that system. They intrude unwanted upon a "closed" system from outside that system. They may require the use or display of power by the intruding system. A "closed" social system may "momentarily" succeed or fail in resisting intrusions upon its boundaries; but once penetrated, the seeds of "decay" begin to work to weaken those boundaries so the system may become increasingly open and receptive to further externally or internally induced pressures for change.

The main sources of system changes are structural stresses and strains (tensions) internal to a system, which cannot be reduced by means which return the system to its former state of equilibrium because of their nature or magnitude, or which cannot be controlled and prevented from cumulating by available system structures.

The structural sources of changes may lead to both intentional or unintentional alterations of a social system; but, almost invariably, intentional change efforts will have unintentional side effects, perhaps leading to further change.

b. Precipitating causal forces:

The drive to reduce tensions developed structurally is the basic precipitating cause for changes in or of social systems.

Tension reducing efforts may fail or succeed, bring temporary or permanent change, be small scale or large, be reformist in nature or revolutionary. The above variations depend upon unique and special conditions operative in a particular social system at a particular time.

Some institutional sectors of a social system tend to hold greater probability of becoming involved in change-related tension reducing efforts than others, because assignment of variable functions to different institutions mandates for or against significant involvement in the goals and processes of system change;

(1) Institutions with adaptive and goal-attainment functions normally lead in socio-cultural change, because the pursuit of their functions affords more challenge and opportunity for variations leading to change than other kinds of institutions, especially in modern, complex, and specialized industrial systems;

(2) Institutions performing pattern-maintenance or integrative functions primarily are given little incentive or challenge to become involved in activities which may lead directly to variations in or of a social system; in fact, such institutions are likely to be resistant to change. In some instances, resistance to change may in part be responsible for creating the stresses and strains which goal-attainment or adaptive institutions seek to alleviate by change-promoting activities. In system theory, however, all sectors of the system respond interactively to tensions in one or more structures; but because vested interests have developed over time, pattern-maintenance or integrative institutions will not respond in terms of their own earlier acquired expectations under new conditions requiring partial or complete change of function.

Three basic conditions under which essentially pattern-maintenance or integrative institutions may add or substitute adaptive or goal-attainment functions to become significantly involved in intentional social change are:

(a) institutional competition for dominance in which the institution can offer alternative, adaptive or goal-attainment solutions to tensions, and has attained sufficient prestige to be accepted, or can develop ideologically powerful charismatic leaders who develop effective power coalitions with which to advance their cause;

(b) as a result of gradual accretion over time and minor tensions, during which institutional interdependency has permitted small scale summative in-system changes to coalesce into large functional perceptions of the institution as an adaptive or goal-attainment agency;

(c) as a result of system development of a rational cultural, with decision-making based on the most logical and efficient means to the ends of tension-reduction and integration of the disjointed system. In this case, rational decision makers decide to alter the institution's functions. The rational society requires minimal valuation integration in the political realm, though not necessarily in others.

3. **Goals of change:**

a. Directions of change:

The directions toward which change efforts aim are determined by the structurally patterned tensions of a social system and are limited, if possible, by a system's core value substructure.

b. Set by:

Vested interest groups, especially their well-integrated elites who function primarily at the institutional level of a social system, set the goals for change and filter innovations designed to reduce personal and social stresses and strains. They may do this consciously or unconsciously. Institutional filtering may have variable dimensions, depending upon the nature of the innovation and social system cohesiveness.

As a corollary, it may be inferred that:

(1) Institutional filtering of technological innova-

tions likely is to be related primarily to criteria of efficiency in accomplishing settled objectives by means of technical processes;

(2) Institutional filtering of valuational innovations likely is to be negative insofar as these innovations appear to threaten core values of the system. Such threatening innovations likely are to require a "social movement."

4. **Intervention:**

a. Confronting symptoms:

Indications or symptoms of need for change in a social system are obvious stresses, strains, and tensions reflecting difficulties of achieving re-equilibrium of the system's structural components. Confronting symptoms of change needs are the bases for inference of underlying causes to be coped with through innovative endeavor, and for inference of the degree and kind of change needed to return the system or its parts to a previous or new equilibrium state.

Information in the form of feedback to those who would diagnose system needs is not automatically available, or it may be avoided by those who may have vested interests in the status quo, when it is available, or avoided for other reasons. An ultra-stable system consciously creates feedback mechanisms for system perpetuity through continuous modification.

b. Goal of intervening:

Goals of intervention in poorly adjusted system relationships are to obtain small or large scale independent or interdependent adjustments or adaptations of the strained system structures, so equilibrium will be restored or a new equilibrium state evolved.

5. **Change agents:**

Place and role combined (in a typical change sequence):

Reitman includes a special explanation in the scheme to show that while Chin views the change agent as a "social engineer," most structural functionalists define an agent as anyone who is especially active in change

efforts which are designed to reduce tension. Those considered as change agents must include at least valuation and technological innovators and opinion leaders (principals) who help diffuse innovations throughout the social system.

a. A problem exists in a social system causing tensions to the social organization.

b. Innovative efforts are made to solve the problem in order to reduce the tensions caused by the problem. These efforts may be made in the valuational and/or technological realms. If made in the valuational realm, they are made primarily by "marginal men." When made in the technological realm, they are made primarily at the managerial or technical levels of organizations by professionals.

c. There is institutional level filtering of innovations by vested interests, followed by acceptance or rejection of the innovations.

d. If an innovation is accepted, it becomes institutionalized and diffused throughout the social system through various adapter categories ("early majority," "later majority," and, finally, "laggards") with the aid of opinion leaders. If it is rejected (e.g., a threatening valuational innovation), a "social movement" may be required in which disciples act as major change agents.

e. There may be derivative side-effects of such institutionalization (Eisenstadt would call these "anti-systems") in the form of new problems or tensions.

f. These side effects or antisystems breed more innovative efforts to resolve them, and the cycle begins again.

6. **Place:**

One kind of change agent is the professional "social" engineer," whose place is outside the target system. Some change agents are innovators in valuational realms who tend to be marginals, working alone rather than closely associated with the structures they seek to modify. Their reference groups tend to consist of significant others outside the system. In this sense, such innovative endeavors may be viewed as "accidental."

An exception may be noted in the case of ultrastable systems, though such systems are more likely to promote their interests through technological rather than valuational innovations.

Innovators in technological realms may be attached to complex structures as professional personnel at managerial or technical levels of organizations. They may work alone or as members of teams. Their reference groups may consist of other attached personnel.

Opinion leaders usually are relatively well integrated members of social systems possessing comparatively high status in their systems or sub-systems.

7. **Role:**

The job of the social engineer is to work with members of a client or target system as a diagnostician of change needs and a consultant in helping to bring about such change.

The job of the innovator of valuational novelties is to create solutions to system problems in the goal attainment mode seeking "ends" rather than "means" as answers to system tensions.

The job of the innovator of technological novelties is to create system problems solutions in the "adaptive" mode, and to seek "means" to already agreed upon "ends" when they are perceived as being met inefficiently.

The role of the opinion leader, acting as a change agent, is to facilitate the diffusion of innovations in either valuational or technological realms; ordinarily it is accomplished by virtue of his/her culturally defined status and role in the social system, the definition of which may limit his/her capacity to influence opinion to fairly specific areas.

The opportunity and motivation to innovate in all functional areas, and in both valuational and technological realms, would appear to increase as a social system became increasingly destructured and troubled; hence, "desperate" for solutions to its problems.

The following pages provide a brief summary of the nineteen major principles of social change derived from the analysis of the system model in the order discussed above.

Summary of Major Principles Derived From an Analysis of the System Model

1. **Content of Stability and Change:**
   a. Stability:
      (1) System stability is structural integration of components and harmony of operations in a static or moving equilibrium.
   b. Change:
      (2) System change is derived from the structure of a social system and is limited largely by basic system values and norms.
      (3) Human actors, playing culturally patterned roles, carry out system change.
2. **Causation of change:**
   a. Sources of change:
      (4) Change is intrusive to a "closed" system, but once its boundaries are successfully intruded upon, a system is open to further changes from both outside and inside these boundaries.
      (5) The primary sources of social change, following intrusion, are internal structural tensions.
      (6) The structural sources of change usually produce unintended side effects following intentional efforts to reduce tensions.
   b. Precipitating causal forces:
      (7) The drive to reduce structural tensions is the precipitating causal force for "open" system change.
      (8) Tension reducing efforts may fail or succeed, bring temporary or permanent change, be small scale or large, be reformist or revolutionary, depending upon unique systems conditions.
      (9) Some institutional sectors of social systems tend to hold greater probability than others of becoming significantly involved in change efforts:
         (a) Institutions with adaptive and goal-

attainment functions normally lead in change, especially in complex societies.

(b) Institutions performing pattern-maintenance or integrative functions primarily and normally react secondarily to change efforts or resist change efforts.

Three basic conditions under which pattern-maintenance or integrative institutions may change functions in order to become adaptive or goal-attainment in nature are:

1. institutional competition for dominance;
2. gradual accretion;
3. development of a rational society.

3. **Goals of change:**

a. Directions of change:

(10) Change directions are structurally determined and largely limited by system core values.

b. Set by:

(11) Vested interests; primarily at institutional levels, set goals for change filter innovations.

Corollary: (a) technological innovations are related primarily to criteria efficiency;

(b) valuation innovations are related primarily to criteria of core value safety.

4. **Intervention:**

a. Confronting symptoms of need for change:

(12) Information feedback is essential for diagnosis of symptoms of change need, but is not necessarily available in social systems.

b. Goal of Intervening:

(13) Goals of intervening in system relationships are to adjust or to adapt structures in order to regain equilibrium.

5. **Change agents:**

(Place and role are combined)

(14) The professional social engineer's place is

outside the target system, and his role is that of consulting diagnostician and advisor about change.

(15) The valuational innovator's place is marginal to system structures, and his role primarily is a seeker of "ends" in the goal-attainment mode.

(16) The technological innovator's place is attached to system structures, and his role is primarily seeker of "means" in the adaptive mode.

(17) The opinion leader's place usually is within the system as a leader, and his change role is to vacillate diffusion of innovations ordinarily in accordance with his culturally patterned status and role in a social system.

(18) The opportunity to innovate in any realm and mode is apt to increase in a direct relationship to a social system's level of destructurization and attendant desperation.

Conclusion

Because schools are complex organizations which serve multiple constituencies, the task of making lasting institutionalized improvement and change is unavoidably complex. The challenge then, to the change agent(s) is two-fold: 1) the change agent(s) must design a needs-responsive (flexible) developmental strategy which accommodates skill needs and gradually facilitates the rise of parity between the agent(s) and the service recipient; and 2) at the same time, the change agent'(s) must design and execute a strategy to effect social system change among the various constituencies within the system. These strategies, integrated and clearly delineated can provide a framework for managing change and increasing the probability of institutionalized improvement.

FOOTNOTES:

[1]Alex M. Mood, et al, *Do Teachers Make a Difference*, U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C., NOHE, 5.258:58042, 1970.

[2]Bruce R. Joyce, *Involvement: A Study of Shared Governance of Teacher Education*, National Dissemination Center, Syracuse University, Syracuse, New York, 1978

[3]John Seiler, *Systems Analysis in organizational Behavior*, Homeward, Illinois: Irwin-Dorsey Series in Behavioral Sciences, 1967, p. 4.

[4]Robert Chin, "The Utility of System Models and Developmental Models for Practitioners," in Warren G. Bennis, Kenneth Benne, and Robert Chin, *The Planning of Change*, New York: Holt, Rinehart, and Winston, 1974.

[5]Keith Davis, "Human Relations at Work," in *The Dynamics of Organizational Behavior*, New York: McGraw-Hill, 1967, p. 31.

[6]Warren G. Bennis, *The Changing Organization*, New York: McGraw-Hill, 1966.

[7]Rensis Likert, "Measuring Organizational Performance, *Harvard Business Review*, XXXVI (March-April, 1958), pp. 41-50.

[8]Chris Argyris, *The Integration of the Individual and the Organization;* paper presented at the University of Wisconsin, Madison, Wisconsin, May, 1961.

[9]James March, *Handbook of Organizations*, Chicago: Rand McNally and Company, 1965.

[10]Seiler, *op. cit.*

[11]In system theory, "client system" may refer to people or to institutions. Here it refers to the school.

[12]Seiler, *op. cit.*

[13]*Ibid*, p. 66.

[14]*Ibid.*

[15]Chester I. Barnard, *The Function of the Executive*, Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 1938, Chapter I.

[16]Bennis, *op. cit.*, p. 66.

[17]Edgar Morphet, Rae L. Johns and Theodore L. Reller, *Educational Organization and Administration*, Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice Hall, 1966.

[18]*Ibid.*

[19]Keith Davis, *op. cit.*, p. 390.

[20]*Ibid.*, Chapter II.

[21]*Ibid.*

[22]Andrew Halpin, *Theory and Research in Administration*, New York: Macmillan Company, 1966.

[23]Chin, *Utility of Models*, p. 201-215.

[24]Sandford W. Reitman, *An Evaluation of the Reconstructionist Conception of the School's Capacity to Make Sociocultural Changes*, unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, Case Western Reserve University, 1969, p. 181.

[25]Note that a model like this — a general analytic model — can be accommodated easily into the system's framework.

[26]Chin, *op. cit.*, p. 204.

[27]Reitman, *op. cit.*, p. 187.

[28]Chin, *op. cit.*, p. 212.

[29]Reitman, *op. cit.*, p. 194.

[30]*Ibid.*, p. 206.

[31]Ibid., p. 205.

[32]Talcott Parsons, "The Prospects of Systematic Theory in Sociology," in *Essays in Sociological Theory*, Ed. by Talcott Parsons, New York: The Free Press, 1967, p. 225.

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[34]Everett Rogers, *Diffusion of Innovation*, New York: The Free Press, 1962.

[35]S.W. Eisenstadt, "Processes of Change and Institutionalization of the Political System of Centralized Empires," in *Explorations in Social Change*, Ed. by George Zollschan and Walter Hirsch, Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1964, pp. 432-450.

[36]Charles Loomis, *Social Systems: Essays on Their Persistence and Change*, Princeton, New Jersey: Van Nostrand, 1960.

[37]Alvin Boskoff, "Functional Analysis as a Source of a Theoretical Repertory and Research Tasks in the Study of Social Change," *Explorations in Social Change*, *op. cit.*, pp. 213-444.

[38]Matthew Miles, *Innovations in Education*, New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1964.

[39]An adaptation of a chart summarizing three models of social change.

[40]For a review of the full discussion of the principles and the basis for them, the reader should turn to Chapter IV of Dr. Reitman's dissertation, *op. cit.*, pp. 169-249.

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3

An Application of Systematic Management Techniques In Teacher Corps Projects

By

Roland Goddu

The Projects

Teacher Corps and other agencies attempting to develop patterns for improving the instruction of children have established the project as the frame of reference for putting the pieces of change together. The project is the focal point for the funding; the project is the home for the persons engaged in the change. The project is the organized effort for change. Yet, few of the persons asked to organize, energize, and manage a project have been exposed to the methods and techniques developed by others to assure successful project operations.

Key Concepts

This chapter will describe the methods and techniques that are available in management literature in terms that are understandable and useable to a project manager not trained in management. An attempt has been made to describe the useable systems or approaches without using too many management grids. Some logical charts and graphic representations have been developed to provide a visual frame of reference for the discussion. The key chart that serves as the road map for this chapter is organized as follows:

(a) focus - that which a project uses to determine what it will produce as a change

(b) climate - those conditions that a project will establish as the mode for engaging persons in a change

(c) control - those techniques that a project puts into place to assure that something will happen.

The problem a project (and a project director) faces is that in reality focus, climate, and control are dimensions of management efforts at four levels of the project as an organization:

1. individual - those activities which each participant uses to do his/her job
2. group - those activities which a combination of individuals use to get a job done
3. program - those activities which are the common set of activities that determine how a project operates
4. institutional - those activities which describe and justify the project to others.

This chapter is organized to address program as the suggested point of entry for organizing the management of a project. This is not to deny that other points of entry might not be suggested from other perspectives, for example:

- psychology would suggest starting with the *individual*
- government would suggest starting with the *group*

research would suggest starting with the *institution*

- management would suggest starting with the *program*.

A management approach asks a project to look first at itself as an entity made up of *members*, with *leadership* and *interactions* to produce *outcomes*. For Teacher Corps projects that means taking the project staff as a group of individuals (members) with a director, policy board, and governance group (leadership) with plans, activities, efforts, crises, energies, decisions, and reports (interactions) to produce documents, results, effects (outcomes).

Key Management Areas

If those be the reality of a project, then the key management concerns for which methods and techniques for increased

productivity and efficiency need to be developed or selected are in the following areas:

1. program development - those activities that organize how members accomplish interactions to produce key results.
2. group development - those activities that leadership utilizes to encourage members to continue to produce
3. documentation - those activities that collect evidence of what activities are happening in a project.

And for each of these areas, management selects a method for determining *focus*, assuring productive *climate*, and assuring efficient *control*.

Historically, techniques for program development, group development, and documentation have developed somewhat independently in management circles. Some of the divergence has come from the differing philosophical or social setting in which the technique was discovered. Practitioners tended to develop program development techniques; humanists tended to develop group development techniques; bureaucrats and theorists tended to develop documentation techniques. Practitioners wanting to get things done described how to get a program going and how to refine it. Humanists wanting to get people in control of their own destiny tended to describe how individuals were brought into a group task and agreed to work together to accomplish a goal. Bureaucrats and theorists are more concerned that a law is being correctly implemented or tested and described how to keep close track of what happened to prove that the law had been implemented or tested.[1]

In reality, a Teacher Corps project director is influenced by all three approaches. Those that would change programs in schools and universities have ideas about how to solve the problem (program development). Those that participate in the project are willing to collaborate together in a way that respects their individuality but serves some group goal (group development), while Teacher Corps makes dollars and other support available if the project indicates what happened and how these happenings are within the intent of the law (documentation).

Areas of Management Activities

A management approach asks projects to (a) determine what processes it will install for program development, group development, and documentation, and (b) determine what technologies will assist in making each process more efficient and productive. In an ideal sense, projects fill in a matrix. (See Figure 1).

In a real sense, individuals have styles and habits which make selection of common activities (processes) and common technologies for the group (project) difficult. The project director negotiates the selection of an appropriate program development, group development and/or documentation process and technology within the tolerances and ability of the individuals and his or her own experience, style, and tolerances. The actual selection of a management system for each cell of the matrix requires time and trial. No one management system, no matter how logical and complete, fits the ability and style of any project group. From a management point of view, it is at this point that the project will probably opt to utilize a combination of management technologies which are purposeful rather than complete. Projects

FIGURE 1

PROJECT MANAGEMENT DIMENSIONS

	KEY PURPOSE:		
Key **Management Area:**	(A) **Focus**	(B) **Climate**	(C) **Control**
(1) Program Development	those activities that help a project determine what it will do when.	those activities that assure that a project plans, implements and analyzes what it does.	those activities that help a project keep track of what is being done when.
(2) Group Development	those activities that help individuals decide if they will work on a task.	those activities that help individuals feel members of a team.	those activities that help a group know where they are as a group and what are options and alternatives
(3) Documentation	those activities that identify what products addressed to which audiences will result.	those activities that help protect members record and report what is useful and important.	those activities that help the project know and record what actually happened.

should consider the limits of a given management system. For example, in which area can a given system be used without causing undue confusion of purpose between how the project wants to use the technique and how the technique was intended to be used?

Context of Choice

This section addresses the issue of selection of management techniques. The approach suggested here assumes that Teacher Corps projects want to manage their affairs to increase:

1. the tapping of creativity of individuals in a group by arranging things to take advantage of conditions that lead to success (program development).
2. the participation of individuals in group activities that are appropriate and assure participation by individuals in accomplishing group goals (group development).
3. the collection of information that indicates the effective practices of individuals, teams, and the group (project) in accomplishing Teacher Corps objectives (documentation).

The pragmatic manager or group selects, adapts, and often invents techniques that provide focus, climate, and control for

FIGURE 2

MANAGEMENT SYSTEM SELECTION MATRIX

KEY PURPOSE

Key Management Area:	(A) Focus	(B) Climate	(C) Control
(1) Program Development	Management by Objectives	Team planning Implementation & Analysis Systems	Systems Analysis
(2) Group Development	Performance Appraisal	Group Processes	Organization Development
(3) Documentation	Discrepancy Evaluation	Action Research	Impact Analysis

each of these areas. Figure 2 indicates prominent management systems which might be considered by managers or groups seeking to improve their focus, climate, or control in each of the key management areas of program development, group development, and documentation. Put another way, project directors should select techniques in each key management area that give them some systematic information about input (control), throughput (climate), and output (focus). Control includes all the factors, influences, resources, characteristics, conditions, personnel, materials, budgets, history, and experiences that are brought to the project or activity and that are the items to be put into some order toward a direction. The establishment of an order is the connecting point between control (input) and climate (throughput). Climate is all those conditions that keep the process going, make the plan move, inter-connect the pieces of the ordering to give it life. Climate is the set of activities that allows things to happen formally (in writing, by using a predetermined series of steps) or informally (as people communicate, work together, move along). Moving things along from planning to implementation and analysis is the bridge that moves controlled items (input) to focused products (output). Focus is all of the objectives, mandates, and directions that have been utilized to give direction to the ordering of input (control) and the movement of throughput (climate). Focus is the set of activities that tracks and collects items that are resulting from the interaction between control and climate.

In Teacher Corps, collaboration in leadership as a norm for all activities makes the selection of a management system difficult. Management systems, or even management thinking, assume limits and order to participation and decisions. Clearly, input decisions are distinct from climate decisions and output decisions. Each can be made collaboratively; that is (a) together a group can decide on the ordering of what is to be done (control), (b) together a group can decide how it will act formally and informally to move things along (climate), and (c) together a group and decide when an item is on target and when it is complete enough (focus). But just that separation of process often is unacceptable in a project that defines collaboration as the ability for all to explore and modify whatever the group is doing or has done. In such a setting, selection of a management technique should be preceded by determining if the group accepts the project as a program to be developed or maintains that the project is an environment for individual growth and development.

Only in the situation where the individual accepts a group task that holds primacy over the individual can a management approach be legitimate. The choice to become a group of persons (members) working together on a program (interactions) to produce results (outcomes) leads to a need (leadership) for some form of systematic management.

Choice of Techniques

Once the decision has been made to see the project as manageable with control, climate, and focus purposes one can identify appropriate management systems to assure efficient and productive program development, group development, and documentation activities in each dimension of Figure 2.

Before describing each technique, a warning is in order. Some of the systems that have been placed in a particular cell of the matrix are not considered by their developers to have such limited utility. This may well be the case in situations where the group using a particular technique is well trained and has common work styles. The author assumes that (1) Teacher Corps projects neither have nor encourage a common style among the members and that (2) collaborative decision making does not encourage selection of one way of doing things across the board. On the other hand, a group could choose to adapt one type of focus technique, e.g. discrepancy evaluation and apply to the three project management areas. If such is the case, common concern should be taken to distinguish the content that needs to be collected to support understanding and decisions in each management area: e.g., discrepancy evaluation applied to program development requires stating objectives and outcomes, applied to group development requires stating performance norms, applied to documentation requires stating criteria for results and products.

Criteria for Selection

A more practical method for selecting a management technique to use in a given project may be to determine in which area the most impact can be had by utilizing a formal management system or inversely in which area utilizing a formal management system will create the least conflict. It may well be that the choice of a management technique for each management area may also

be a technique for limiting conflict and assuring some quality control. Realistically some choices must be made since resources, time, and expertise make it improbable that a complete system or set of techniques can be implemented at a sophisticated interrelated level. The selection of a particular technique in a management area should consider the following questions:

CHECKLIST FOR SELECTING MANAGEMENT TECHNIQUES

little some much (a) how much planning time will be required?

little some much (b) how much record keeping will be required?

little some much (c) how much analysis time will be required?

little some much (d) how compatible to existing styles, habits, and management processes is the proposed system?

little some much (e) how compatible to project collaborative decision making style is the proposed systems processes?

_____ (f) what critical information will be collected and organized by the proposed system?

little some much is this information of that much interest or concern?

_____ (g) what interactions will be organized?

little some much are they the interactions: roles, relationships, communication processes, products, travel, time, dollars, etc., that are important to make the project work better?

_____ (h) what evidence will the system provide to improve decisions and choices?

little some much is that the key area in need of clarification?

Selecting a technique will depend in large part on:

1. What a project group finds most useful in allowing it to take leadership or to energize itself in the design, imple-

mentation, and evaluation activities of project management.

2. What a project group feels are appropriate areas for confrontation, for comparing the objective to the intuitive, and for presenting accomplishments to others.
3. What a project group thinks is indicative of direction or impact for the project as a whole.

The key to effective project management is the selection and utilization of some techniques in the key management areas that allow for some formal steps to be checked out independent of personalities or opinions. That is the value of a formal management system. It is only by having something in writing, decided upon in advance, and reviewed at a given point in time that one can establish (a) a base line for the project as an organization, and (b) a context for understanding the shifts in project operations that are bound to occur. Management techniques (and even systems which organize techniques into larger interconnected patterns) provide project management with approaches for balancing their efforts to solve the problems before and after they occur. What a management technique should help a project do is to point out or validate what is occurring in the project by:

1. tracing the stages, the allocation of resources, the events of the project
2. identifying the events that increase or decrease trust, collaboration, direction setting
3. pointing out the results as they are in the reality of the project, not as they are in the mind or emotions of the producers.

As a project group selects a management technique for program development or group development or documentation, care must be taken to balance individual and group needs for creativity, conflict resolution, and direction concerns with basic organization needs for control, climate, and focus. Since primacy is often given in collaborative Teacher Corps projects to creativity, conflict resolution, and direction setting, the following listing of techniques should be considered in selecting a technique.

TECHNIQUE IN KEY AREAS

(1) **Supports Creativity**
Impact Analysis
Group Process

(2) **Supports Conflict Resolution**
Discrepancy Evaluation
Organization Development
Systems Analysis

(3) **Supports Direction Setting**
Management by Objectives
Team Planning, Implementation, and Analysis Systems

The fundamental choice of the project group remains which management technique will lead to the most insightful linkage in a given project to provide needed information for decision making and problem solving in the key management areas of Program Development, Group Development, and Documentation?

Management Techniques for Program Development

In a Teacher Corps project, the key activity for the project is *Program Development.* In this area are those activities of the project that move a project from proposal to results in a somewhat systematic manner. The following is a list of management systems or techniques from which a project could select an approach to assist it in program development.

1. Systems Analysis
2. Team Planning, Implementation, and Analysis Systems
3. Management by Objectives

Systems analysis[2] is a group of techniques used by a manager or management group to identify and look at the parts of an organization or project. Systems analysis can range from the very informal description of the facts and figures of budget, personnel, and activities to the very formal management information systems with flow charts, decision trees, policy manuals, time charts and schedules, cost accounting procedures, etc. The purpose of systems analysis is to identify what is, how it interrelates, and how it influences productivity; thus, a system analysis tries to provide the manager with control of the activity of the organization.

Techniques usually used for formal system analysis are:

- Management Information Systems (MIS)
- Planning Evaluation Review Technique (PERT)
- Critical Path Method (CPM)
- Program Planning and Budgeting System (PPBS)

In each of these techniques flow charts are essential. A flow chart traces the activity of the project from beginning to end and identifies all key activities, decision points, and time needed to move from one point to another. A more sophisticated analysis system using statistics and probability estimates for each activity (cell) and time sequence (cost) has been developed called simulation or network analysis. With the rapid development of computers, system analysis has the potential to become a very sophisticated control tool. One can determine what activity and what amount of time (dollars and people) are actually needed to get a job done efficiently. The value of system analysis management approaches to the manager is the rapid and consistent (objective) information made available in reasonably understandable graphic format: the flow chart. A clear disadvantage is that the people disappear beyond the circles, triangles, and connecting lines.

Few education managers utilize system analysis approaches at the sophisticated level for control. Many use the techniques in general for planning purposes or clarification purposes. For example, one project established its program evaluation approach based on a flow chart of component parts (see Figure 3). This simple flow chart does not allow for the detailed control of the project activity. It is, nevertheless, an analysis of the system and does provide a snapshot of what a project sees as the relationship of its parts. A more complete system analysis would develop flow charts with time and cost allocation for each of the items identified. (See Figure 4)

Using system analysis in managing a process requires a willingness to draw boundaries around activities and to specify details of activities. Such a conceptualization is often difficult in a project where people are discovering what works and who can get things done. It is useful from a management sense to identify and connect the parts of the project that need to interrelate to move the program along. That is not all that is needed, though.

Team planning, implementation and analysis systems provide a manager with patterns for getting work done in and by groups. The difference between team systems and group process approaches is the task completion focus of team systems. Team or task force approaches are a specific type for working toward project completion. In Teacher Corps, due to the team leader, intern arrangement and the project board arrangement, team and task force techniques are crucial to project well-being and reduction of role and responsibility conflicts. Yet this is the

FIGURE 3

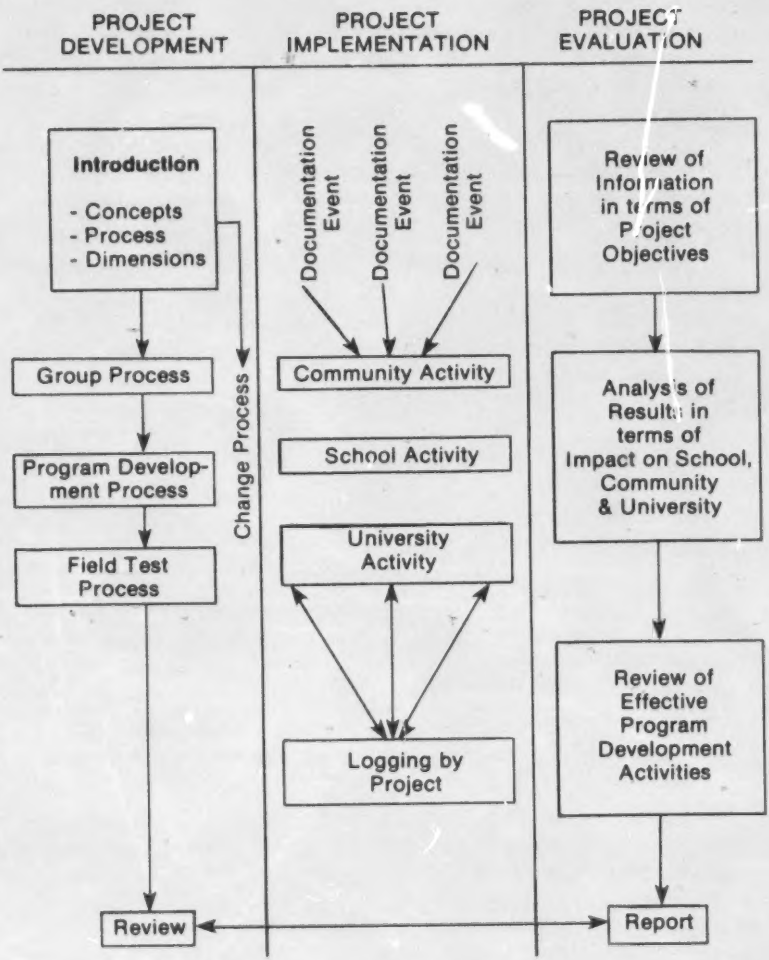
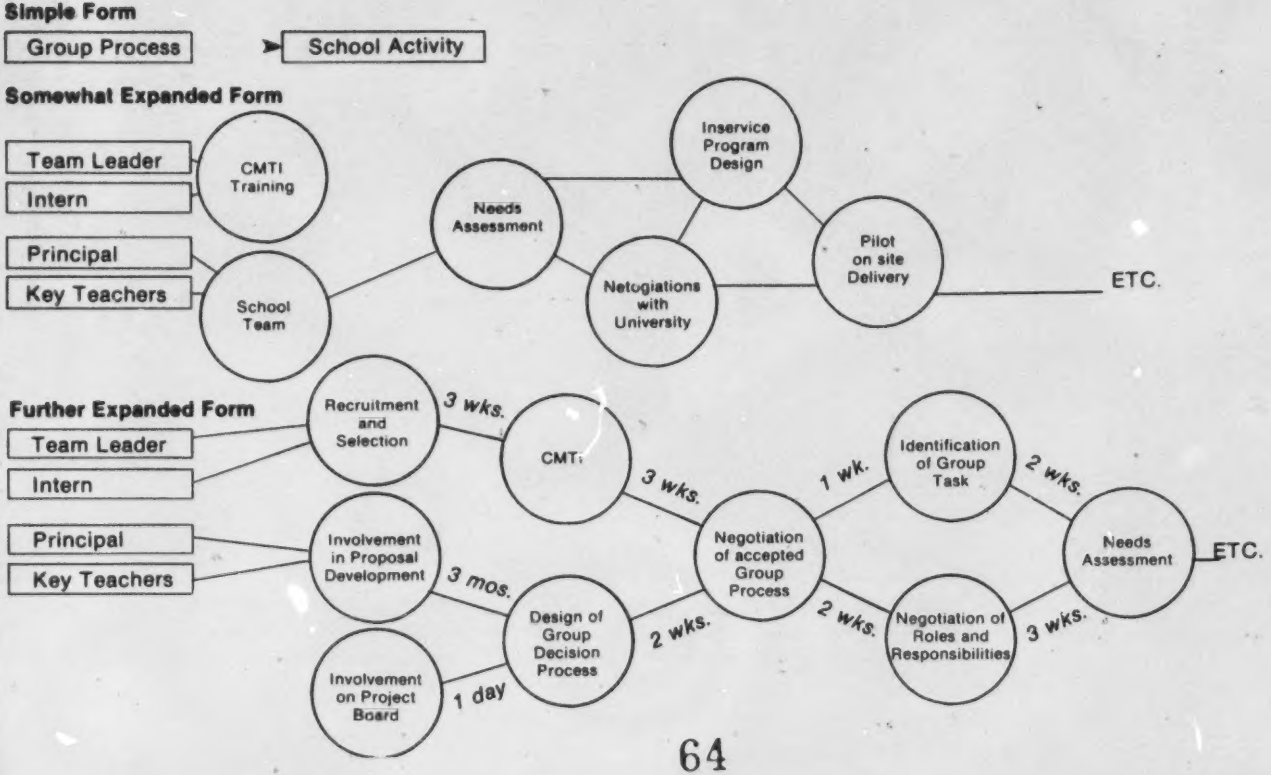

PROJECT DEVELOPMENT
PROJECT IMPLEMENTATION
PROJECT EVALUATION
Introduction
- Concepts
- Process
- Dimensions
Group Process
Program Development Process
Field Test Process
Review
Change Process
Documentation Event
Documentation Event
Documentation Event
Community Activity
School Activity
University Activity
Logging by Project
Review of Information in terms of Project Objectives
Analysis of Results in terms of Impact on School, Community & University
Review of Effective Program Development Activities
Report

FIGURE 4


Simple Form
Group Process
School Activity
Somewhat Expanded Form
Team Leader
Intern
Principal
Key Teachers
CMTI Training
School Team
Needs Assessment
Inservice Program Design
Netogiations with University
Pilot on site Delivery
ETC.
Further Expanded Form
Team Leader
Intern
Principal
Key Teachers
Recruitment and Selection
3 wks.
CMT
3 wks.
Involvement in Proposal Development
3 mos.
Involvement on Project Board
1 day
Design of Group Decision Process
2 wks.
Negotiation of accepted Group Process
1 wk.
Identification of Group Task
2 wks.
2 wks.
Negotiation of Roles and Responsibilities
3 wks.
Needs Assessment
ETC.

area of management techniques that is the least well developed. Many management techniques are designed for a single person or for discrete task completion. The issue of team planning, implementation, and analysis is rarely addressed except in group process and development (that is training) terms. Some of the management approaches that are useful in this area are:

- Task Force Approaches
- Roles and Responsibility Charting
- Matrix Organizations

In each of these techniques the key approach is allocation of authority by the careful delineation of who does what with whom and when. Allocating authority requires not only specifying to whom one reports (supervision) but also what tasks will be performed within the domain allocated (turf) and how all will know that the task has been done. The key management concern is agreement on completion of task together, not on the details. The techniques then make visible the areas of agreement whatever they may be, that will lead to task completion. An examination of the organization of team activity indicates a recurrent cycle — planning together, doing as agreed upon, and analyzing together. The successful manager of a team allows the completion of the complete cycle before imposing control or exercising evaluative supervision.

Many educators use team systems. Team teaching is a highly visible form of team systems. In Teacher Corps, the team leader/intern team is another form. What is not often as visible are the multiple sets of teams utilized in Teacher Corps projects. While role and responsibility statements exist for individuals in the form of job description for project director, program development specialist and community coordinator, few examples exist of "job descriptions" for:

- Inservice Design Development Team
- Needs Assessment Instrument Development and Delivery Team
- Community Resource Identification and Utilization Team
- School Curriculum Change Team

Since teaming is a crucial part of effective program development in Teacher Corps, one would expect a Role and Responsibility Chart. (See Figure 5)

FIGURE 5

	Policy Board	Problem Analysis Team	Program Implementation Team	Documentation Group	Product Development Group	Report Preparation Group
Members	___	___	___	___	___	___
TASKS • Planning • Implementation • Analysis						

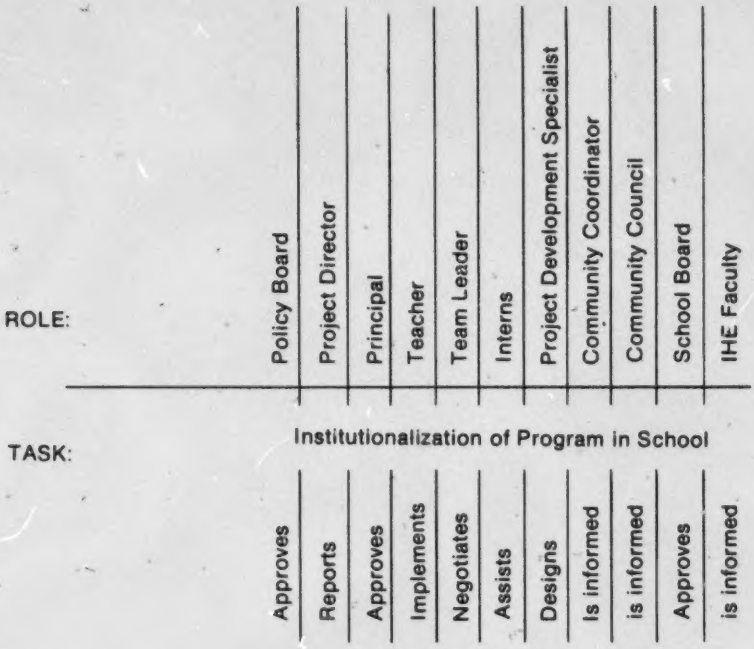
Instead, one finds role and responsibility charts that break out tasks and individuals for each task. The resulting confusions around approving, informing, communicating, developing, and doing are difficult to sort. (See Figure 6)

This form of charting is too abstract to assist the persons involved in actually accomplishing a task which is essential to the project. Both the task and the organization of persons in a project has to be refined. The task must be specified in more detail and the role groups must be appropriate to the detailed tasks identified. It is through specific clarification that the climate of program development is made positive in the managerial sense; that is, project members have a known and accepted manner for completing the essential activities of the project.

Management by objectives[4] is a management technique to clarify the direction, intent, and result of the organization's activity. It emphasizes what results are to be accomplished rather than the conditions or resources needed.

While debate rages about whether an individual statement is a goal, objective, mission, target or enabling activity, the practical application of MBO is to involve the organization in reaching an

FIGURE 6



agreement about a written statement of the intent it has for doing a job. Objectives become guidelines for outcome as well as intent. A project can be evaluated against the objectives after the activity is completed. MBO provides a logical context for planning, action and evaluation. Objective setting is the key process of MBO. (See Figure 7)

In education, and particularly in Teacher Corps projects, MBO should not be seen as simply an exercise in logic. It can be used as a pattern for direction setting and targeting activity as well as the basis for adjusting expectations. An example of useful application of MBO is developed in Figure 8.

The key to making an MBO system work is to schedule in advance objective setting (planning) and activity progress (analysis) sessions to occur at least quarterly. Focus for management is not a one time thing. It is an on-going activity particularly during program development in an environment as creative as a Teacher Corps project.

FIGURE 7

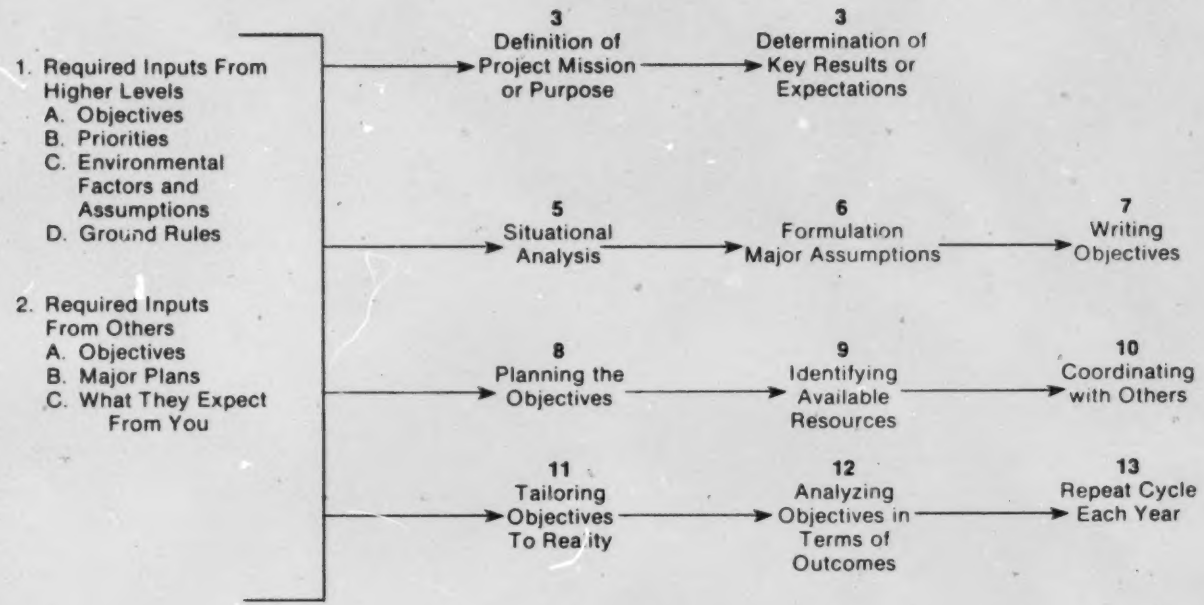

1. Required Inputs From Higher Levels
A. Objectives
B. Priorities
C. Environmental Factors and Assumptions
D. Ground Rules
2. Required Inputs From Others
A. Objectives
B. Major Plans
C. What They Expect From You
3 Definition of Project Mission or Purpose
3 Determination of Key Results or Expectations
5 Situational Analysis
6 Formulation Major Assumptions
7 Writing Objectives
8 Planning the Objectives
9 Identifying Available Resources
10 Coordinating with Others
11 Tailoring Objectives To Reality
12 Analyzing Objectives in Terms of Outcomes
13 Repeat Cycle Each Year

FIGURE 8

PLANNING FOR OBJECTIVE D:

To document total project processes and products which were used to facilitate and foster pupil growth, teacher competency, community involvement, shared decision-making and institutional change, and disseminate appropriate results to any concerned audiences.

Component	Activity	Date	Person Responsible	Purpose	Product/Process
Pupil Growth	-Collect materials and products that reflect the growth of pupils in the areas of academic achievement, self-concept and motivation	Sept-Dec 1977	Team Leader	To document products that help improve the quality of education of children attending Lindenwood School	-Lesson plans and instructional aids -Books-Creative Writing -Art Products -Records of Referrals to Guidance Counselor and IDP Center
Teacher Competency	-Compile materials facilitating teacher competency	Sept-Dec 1977	Project Director Team Leader Teachers	To collect evidence of enhanced teacher competencies	-Minutes and Agendas of Inservice Meetings -Papers and Reports prepared by Teachers for UED 540 -Teachr-made instructional Aids
Community Involvement	Collect materials that are evidence of community involvement	Sept-Dec 1977	Asst. Project Director Interns	To produce product of program activities and processes of the community education component	-Interns' Logs -Interns' Project Proposals -List of Community Resources and Agencies -Community Modules -Parent Training Program -Minutes, Agenda and collected materials from Community Agencies

Shared-Decision Making	-Document activities that involve shared-decision making and collect products developed through collaboration	Sept-Dec 1977	Team Leader Community Coordinator Project Director Asst. Project	To document opportunities and procedures for collaboration and participation by the various collaborating agencies in the decision-making processes of the Teacher Corps Project	-Weekly staff Meetings' Agendas and Minutes -Steering Council Meetings' Agendas and Minutes -Minutes of On-site Seminars -12th Cycle Teacher Corps proposals -Quarterly Reports -Agendas and Minutes of Open House -Completed Forms for Evaluation Process -Forms related to intern observation
Institutional Change	-Document evidence of institutional change	Sept-Dec 177	Teacher Corps Staff Teacher Corps Staff	To effect institutional change, both at college and school	-Course Modules, Outlines, Bibliographies -Launching a Teacher Corps Project -Teacher Corps Awareness Day's Skit, Transparencies, Photos, Slides

Application

This section describes how a project director might apply formal management approaches in a project. Since formal management systems are designed to provide focus and control of a particular part of the organization, any parts focused on and controlled become public to all in the organization. Being visible they allow for multiple interpretations. The utility of the information for the organization can lead to growth when the information is analyzed and used as a basis for planning and action. An organization grows through ongoing planning-action-analysis cycles. Time is required for each part of the cycle — planning time, action time and (as important) analysis time.

A project director faces an interesting problem in selecting the type of management system to utilize for a project. The problem of selecting is compounded by the fact that the director in a Teacher Corps project is committed to collaborative decision-making. Most project directors assume this to mean the decision that can only be made by the group. Therefore, most project directors hesitate to select and/or to utilize a management system.

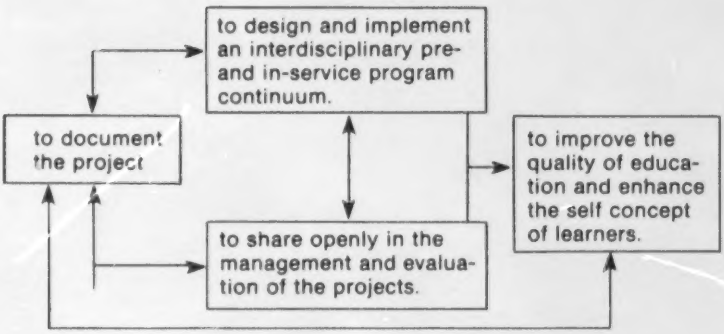
If one examines the practice of successful project directors, one finds that they make pragmatic decisions. They examine the environment and conditions of their project and carefully select those activities and processes which they feel can be focused on and controlled based upon the expectations of the local project and of National Teacher Corps. Of late, the effort by National Teacher Corps to require documentation has made some project directors aware that the choices of what to focus on and control are part of a larger fabric and that they should consider how the technique selected will identify pieces that may lead to identifying a demonstrable element in the completed project. How decisions are made, how planning occurs, how a program develops, how efforts are analyzed, and how activities are evaluated, all make up a structure which is for better or worse a management system that works in a particular project. While pragmatic project directors tend to find the combinations of processes and reports that are most comfortable and most compatible to a warm and involving group process, they sometimes neglect management practices which require rigor, control, and limits.

Since the basis for funding is a proposal, a useful area for selecting a management technique is control of activities through the proposal of objectives. The creation of a formal

management system that works requires that the proposed objectives be examined and modified to fit the real world of operating a project. This is an analysis and planning activity that can lead to rewriting objectives. As the project is implemented, objectives are modified to make them obtainable in the project situation. In a project where formal management systems have been attempted, this particular activity of redefining the objectives and clarifying them in a systematic way was the first step in developing the formal management system. The simple task of going back through the activity of objective setting with an attempt to analyze systematically the relationship between the different kinds of objectives in the local project made it possible for that local project to organize its objectives in such a way that the interrelationship of the project activities with the multiple objectives was specified. (See Figure 9)

FIGURE 9

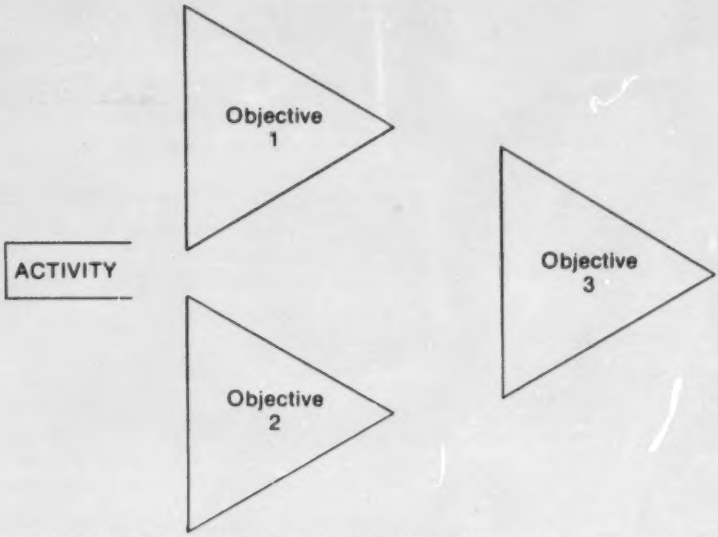
SAMPLE OF INTERRELATED OBJECTIVES


to design and implement an interdisciplinary pre- and in-service program continuum.
to document the project
to improve the quality of education and enhance the self concept of learners.
to share openly in the management and evaluation of the projects.

As the real objectives of the project were clarified through discussions, roles and relationships were also specified. As specific activities were discussed, community, school, college, and team personnel had points of reference to identify purpose. The result was that the project began to discuss objectives as a set of arrowheads. The reality of multiple agendas made it important to specify interrelated, if not overlapping, objectives being served by a particular project activity. (See Figure 10)

Reviewing objectives by the project group clearly addressed the membership issue in a teacher corps project. It distinguished between those who "would write" and those who "would do." The

FIGURE 10



project members became those hired to implement the objectives of the proposal. This group's first organization task was to analyze the objectives and *not* to plan activities, to adapt the objectives to the real world with which this group had to contend. What the formal activity of objective setting or clarification did was to make formal the notion that an objective is a statement of intent. Intent clarified is direction. Without planning and analysis, what results is an overlapping set of objectives that unclarified lead only to confusion and frustration. What objectives are selected depends in part on those contextual characteristics of the specific project, which are most probably situational, combined with those characteristics of the individuals involved in the project who are the group that is collaboratively designing the project. The actual effect of implementing activities to reach out to the direction leads to outcomes of the project which can only be measured against clarified intent that reflects improved understanding of local and national agendas.

So, a project has the major characteristics of an organization. It has membership (the project team); it has leadership (the) group); it has interaction (analysis and planning); and it has projected outcomes. The simple definition of each of these characteristics of a Teacher Corps project creates a formal context for project operations. Membership can be defined generally as

project director, team leader, intern, community coordinator, program specialist, etc. Membership can be more precisely defined as groups of individuals with specific roles who interact to make decisions which will direct and influence the activities of the project. For example, project director, community coordinator, and team leader are a set of persons that addresses certain issues. Team leaders and interns are another set. Program specialist and interns yet another. Membership is a set of groupings more than it is a group of roles. This definition tends also to describe some leadership and some interaction characteristics, yet it is a more precise definition of the project membership.

While there has been, historically, some attempt in Teacher Corps to define membership from an organization management point of view, by individuals' roles, the roles are simply passive descriptions of functions that individual members perform with others. It is difficult to imagine a Teacher Corps project where each of the roles is actively developed independently. One tends to perceive the Teacher Corps project staff as groupings of different individuals with specialized roles. Membership is then a combination of individuals who have different functional roles in the group and a combination of groups who perform project tasks.

As membership is a group thing, leadership in Teacher Corps is, by definition, a group thing. In an organizational sense, the project director is the one who is held ultimately accountable for the performance of the project. In a collaborative management sense, the project team is the ultimate decision force. As a result, while leadership is often presented as something in which the team leaders, interns, project director, program development specialist, principal, and others all participate equally, the reality of managing a Teacher Corps project requires that some individual, at some time, takes formal, independent leadership, if only to identify the process which will be used by the group or the topic to be addressed by a group at a particular time.

While membership more precisely defines *who participates*, leadership more precisely defines *who is responsible*. Once these two characteristics in a Teacher Corps project are made explicit, one has the beginning of a formal organization because one already has, in the proposal, projected outcomes in the form of objectives. The only remaining part needed to establish a formal organization is basic interactions. Those basic interactions in a Teacher Corps project are of three types: (1) the program development system, (2) the decision-making system,

and (3) the documentation system. Whether or not a Teacher Corps project makes these interactions explicit or formal, it is the description and development of these basic interactions that a person or group responsible for managing a proking system, and (3) the documentation system. Whether or not a Teacher Corps project makes these interactions explicit or formal, it is the description and development of these basic interactions that a person or group responsible for managing a project is most concerned about. How will the program develop? How will the decisions be made: How will we know what is happening in the project? It is these dimensions that most effective project directors are concerned about then they ask how they can be held accountable for the productivity or the reaching of objectives when the leadership and/or authority for making decisions is so diffuse in the project. In reality, they select one or the other of these basic interactions as the entry for establishing some formal constraints. Either a definite program development pattern is established, or a definite documentation system is established. Establishing any one of the basic interactions as a formal system does make clear that there are some organizational norms to which the individuals or groups are accountable.

It is in the selection of the program development system, group decision-making system, or documentation system that the project makes clear what its management style is, what its management expectations are, what the management norms are. Selecting a program development system that separates planning, implementation, and analysis formalizes the phases and sets aside a time when certain kinds of decisions are made and what kind of information is needed at what time. Such a decision not only specifies the program development system, but it also facilitates decisions in that it makes clear the stages of the operation; it makes clear when it is appropriate to provide what information so that a decision can be made; it makes clear when individuals or groups are expected to do what. Most effective Teacher Corps management systems set aside time for planning and time for analysis. The crucial dimension for making a formal management system work is to set aside specific analysis time. The group or other leadership must determine that the project will review at a given time what has occurred in terms of what was planned, if only to determine how far along the project has come in reaching its projected outcomes.

The analysis activity is distinct from decision-making. In a Teacher Corps project, the decision-making system is by defi-

nition a collaborative activity which requires the involvement of many individuals and the nurturing of as many alternative views as possible. From a management perspective, such an approach requires an expert leader who understands and knows how to facilitate group involvement, is sensitive to individual needs and expectations, recognizes the acceptable solutions, makes the consolidating statement of the decision, and finally, energizes the individuals in the group to implement the decision.

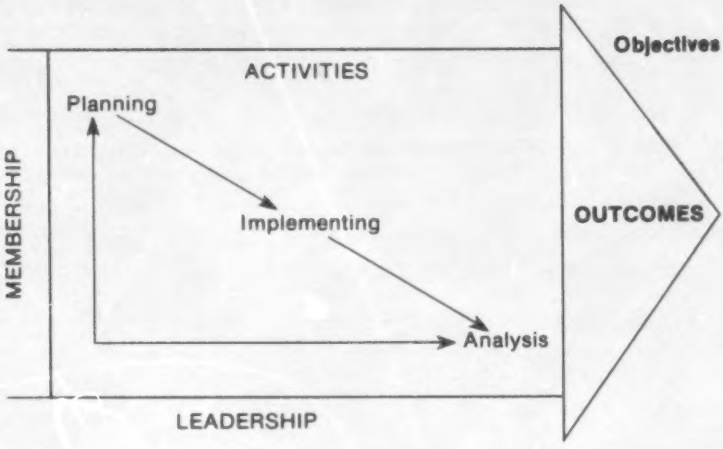
It is often because no factual information is collected and recorded that the interrelation between the decision-making system tends to become very confused. It is by documenting what happens in the planning session and what decisions are made in the sessions that one facilitates the later analysis of the project's productivity. The documentation system provides information about what happened and what did not happen in the program development cycle; that is, what was planned, what was implemented, and what was analyzed. It also identifies what was decided and how. While such a statement seems rather simplistic, it is important because it is this formal feedback, this neutrally collected information, that forms the basis for moving the organization forward.

To return to the arrowhead which was entitled "objectives" and the arrow body which was entitled "activities," a more comprehensive mode would have the arrowhead with the word "objectives" on the outside and the word "outcomes" on the inside; the long body with the word "activities" at the top and then three columns: (1) membership which would indicate who is participating, (2) leadership — who is responsible for the implementation of the activity, and (3) interactions — those planning, implementation, analysis activities which will lead toward the projected outcome. (See Figure 11)

It is in the planning, implementing, and analysis activities that projects make pragmatic selections and adaptations that are acceptable to the membership and leadership of the project. While theory says that this should be organized in a certain formal way, the pragmatic Teacher Corps project chooses certain specific modes for developing the project — modes that emphasize collaborative decision-making, modes that emphasize systematic documentation.

There are many ways that a project can approach formal management systems. The experience of some Teacher Corps projects indicates that it is probably useful to consider the type of problem that the project faces as the basis for choosing a type of

FIGURE 11



formal management system technology. It is useful to think of problems in three areas of program development: the planning stage, the implementation state, and the analysis stage. In all stages there are contextual type problems — (problems based on what influences), targeting type problems — (problems based on identify ng what is), and specifying type problems — (problems based on interactions).

In the planning stage, one finds that there are problems that are contextual in nature. *Contextual* problems are best addressed by impact analysis technologies or technologies that organize and control information. Such a technology is management information systems. Another set of problems is *targeting* type of problems, clarification and specification types of problems. These require a technology that sets or clarifies objectives. A formal management system that facilitates such activities is management by objectives. The third type of planning problem is *clarifying and specifying* the multiple interactions that are necessary to implement the project. This requires technologies that specify time, persons, resources, or schedules. A technology that specifies, in detail, these interactions is PPBS or some form of PERT. One will note that MIS, MBO and PPBS are fundamentally planning technologies. They set the frame, set the stage, for doing something. While they may serve as a frame of reference and a bench mark during the implementation state, they are not in and of themselves implementation technologies.

Implementation technologies are different from planning technologies. Implementation technologies require methods for energizing and controlling persons, processes, or products. At the implementation stage, *contextual* type problems tend to be "how do we get a group of individuals to agree on, and communicate, and share in such a way that a product is developed." A type of management technology that is used to develop clear and responsive communication is sensitivity training. The implementation phase *targeting* problems tend to be selecting processes that encourage the most efficient set of activities or processes in delivering a group product. The kind of management technologies that are applied in this instance are team building, group building technologies. Finally, the more complex implementation problems, where all of the interactions need to be *clarified and organized and specified*, require that all persons agree on the processes to be set in motion toward the production of specific outcomes. The management technology used for this purpose is OD or organization development. Sensitivity training, team building, and organization development are perceived by many to be softer technologies. They are actually useful during the implementation stage of program development, not necessarily in the planning stage. Many groups attempt to clarify communications through sensitivity training or clarify all of the interactions among individuals in a situation through organization development as a preliminary to planning. There is some evidence that the specification of the objectives or the allocation of resources should occur before clarification of communication to serve as a context for individual or group development activities. It seems that when the boundaries of an organization are known then the group or individual can begin the process of communication toward implementation.

The third phase of program development is analysis. It requires a different set of technologies. In this area, there are also *contextual* types of problems; that is, what outcomes match what objectives. The technologies needed here are technologies that keep the outcomes and objectives constant while one examines what process variables and what personnel variables in the organization led to the outcomes in contrast to the objectives. This requires discrepancy analysis that focuses on comparing what is with what was projected. A second type of problem in the analysis phase is identifying what planning and development *targets* need to be modified. Here, one needs technologies that keep personnel constant while one examines those variabilities

in process and variabilities in statement of outcomes that would lead to more efficient planning and development. Impact analysis can assist in this task.

The third area in which problems may occur in the analysis stage in management of an organization is in clarifying and specifying the relationship between the operations as they occur in the real life of the organization and the organization's goals and mission. What a manager attempts to do is to relate the person's performance to the outcomes for the organization. One attempts to keep the outcomes and processes constant and to find what variability exists among individuals. A formal management system that is utilized for such analysis is performance appraisal. Performance appraisal examines what individuals agreed would be their activities and what their expected modes of performing these activities would be. Then a supervisor measures the individuals in terms of how well they actually performed against these negotiated norms. The project therefore has a set of choices. It can select the formal management system with the most utility for the project, depending on the type of problem it perceives itself as having. The selection or implementation of a management system, and they are distinct — to select is one thing and to implement is another — is fundamentally a question for somebody to decide. In organizations one finds that the selection of the technology is a choice by the manager. The identification of the problem to be addressed tends to be the responsibility of the group. Since the manager knows what process or technology he or the group is able to utilize to solve a problem, he often waits to select a technology until the group has decided what area it wants to address. The dilemma for the manager is to surface the appropriate technology that he or the group is able to utilize at an appropriate time that assists the group that is struggling with the identification of an organizational problem. When a group tends to use the same technology for many kinds of problems, it is an indication that the manager does not have sufficient background or experience. It also may be that the group is not comfortable with the use of different technologies or formal processes. Using a new technology requires that the group learn by doing, even if a bit uncomfortable, and tolerate inefficiency in the group as they develop the background and experience by which all can become expert in a new technology.

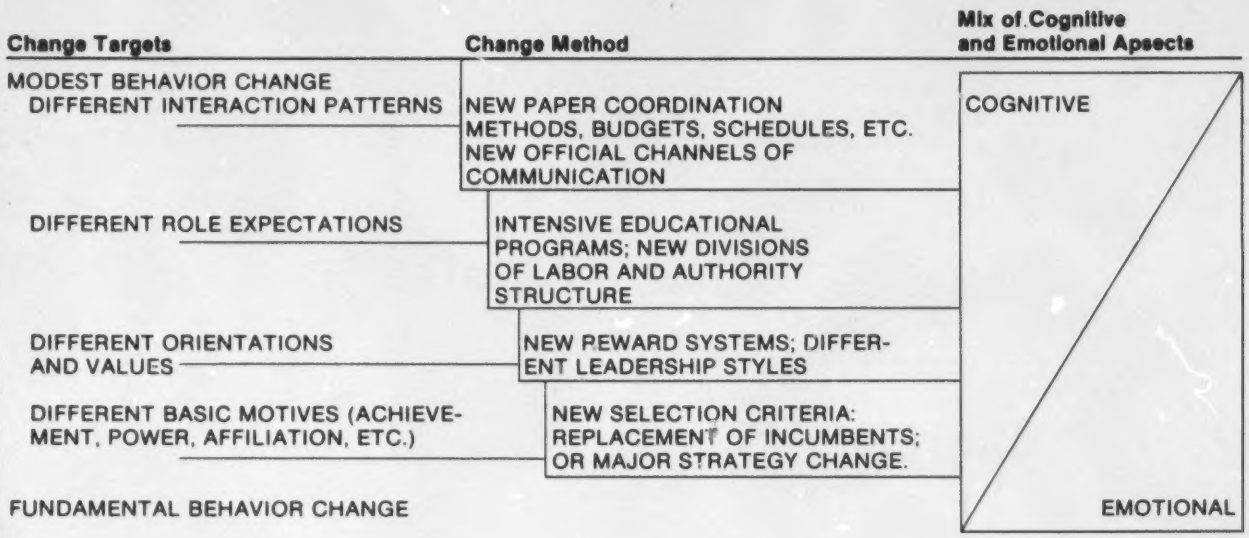
One way of understanding the value and knowledge shifts that are required for the learning of a new technology, the accept-

ance as well as the application of a new technology, is to examine the table presented by Lawrence & Lorsch which specifies the amount of cognitive and the amount of affective change necessary when an individual or group changes normal behaviors in an organization. (See Figure 12)

In looking at the choice to be made when a new organizational problem occurs, one is full-circled back to someone making a pragmatic selection of what level of change will be addressed and what technology will be utilized and adapted in a particular situation. The pragmatic decision is made in the light of fundamental risks and changes that need to be addressed if the purposes of the organization or project are to be reached. In one setting the leader chose to implement a formal documentation system that required simply the restatement of the objectives. by that simple decision, the leader in a particular project faced the risk that the local project as well as the national monitor might find the revised objectives unacceptable. But, more fundamentally for the organization, the respecification of the objectives clarified the limits of the organization and clarified the activities that would be considered acceptable in that particular project. As a result, some of the personal agendas of individuals were eliminated which led to the need for establishing a formal organizational work plans that specified activities, persons responsible, and projected outcomes on a regular basis. It was only with the comparison over time of the projected outcomes with the project objectives that the individuals in the project noted that they were both shaping and modifying the objectives constantly over time. More importantly, they were slowly limiting the range of activities that were individualistic and idiosyncratic. The risk that this particular project director took was that the context of that specific project was such that some commonality of objectives and some commonality of activities could be specified by the group. The risk was balanced by the fact that the project acted very maturely since all of the personnel involved in the project had been involved for a three- to five-year period of time.

In new projects or projects where significant change in personnel or objectives have occurred, such a risk might be untenable. More likely the project director and/or the leadership group or person in a new or changed project would tend to specify a documentation system which would provide more objective information about what was happening in the decision-making and program development systems of the project. While

FIGURE 12


Change Targets
Change Method
Mix of Cognitive and Emotional Aspects
MODEST BEHAVIOR CHANGE
DIFFERENT INTERACTION PATTERNS
NEW PAPER COORDINATION METHODS, BUDGETS, SCHEDULES, ETC.
NEW OFFICIAL CHANNELS OF COMMUNICATION
DIFFERENT ROLE EXPECTATIONS
INTENSIVE EDUCATIONAL PROGRAMS; NEW DIVISIONS OF LABOR AND AUTHORITY STRUCTURE
DIFFERENT ORIENTATIONS AND VALUES
NEW REWARD SYSTEMS; DIFFERENT LEADERSHIP STYLES
DIFFERENT BASIC MOTIVES (ACHIEVEMENT, POWER, AFFILIATION, ETC.)
NEW SELECTION CRITERIA: REPLACEMENT OF INCUMBENTS; OR MAJOR STRATEGY CHANGE.
FUNDAMENTAL BEHAVIOR CHANGE
COGNITIVE
EMOTIONAL

the risk of blocked communication would be high as people found information to be inaccurate or incomplete, leadership in such a project tends to seek methods which will provide consistent and reliable information over a period of time to both stabilize the processes of the organization and stabilize people's expectation about what is happening and who is doing what for whom in what manner.

In both these instances, formal management systems were not implemented as they are described in the ideal world of textbooks. Rather, leadership selected a key variable and utilized a technology to make public to everyone key interactions and dimensions of the organization. In no instance will a complete formal management system be installed in a project; rather, one will find pieces from many management systems carefully selected for their utility to those people who are the membership of the project. The technologies used will be those that assist in accomplishing a set of interactions to reach a determined set of objectives under the leadership of specified individuals. A change in the membership, or a change in the leadership or a change in the objectives will significantly modify what management system or technology is applicable for controlling the basic interactions of the project.

It is the basic interactions of the project that the formal management systems address rather than the membership-leadership, projected outcomes (objectives) dimensions. The basic interactions remain — the program development system which includes planning, implementation, and analysis; the decision-making system which includes problem solving and evaluation; and the documentation system which includes information about activities planned and activities implemented as well as information about project outcomes and actual outcomes. Documentation systems are designed to assist program development and decision-making, but they assist by collecting the various types of information about the project, the types of information about the project, the types of information that specify the program development stages or identify and specify problems to be solved or discrepancies to be evaluated.

Selection

Now that theory, application, and practice have been reviewed, the fundamental questions to be addressed in selecting a management technology can be discussed. The question being

asked when one takes on a management system perspective is: Does the Teacher Corps project consider itself an organization? Management theorists believe that a project can only be managed if someone or something considers the project a unique and an identifiable entity that takes the form of some type of organization. The parameters or characteristics of an organization are: membership, leadership, systematic interactions, and outcomes or objectives.

DETERMINING THAT A PROJECT IS AN ORGANIZATION

A. Is there a unique membership?
   1. Who is included and who is excluded?
   2. Do those who are included provide a coherent description of the project that gives it an identity?
   3. Do those outside of the project perceive the project as different from the individuals and the institutions where the project takes place?

B. Who is responsible for the Teacher Corps Project?
   1. What is its leadership structure?
   2. Who is responsible for day-by-day decisions?
   3. Who is responsible for context or policy decisions?
   4. Who is responsible for evaluation?

C. How do these individuals relate one to the other?
   1. What roles do individuals play?
   2. How do these roles interrelate in the operation of a project?
   3. What are the key areas in which roles interrelate during the operation of the project: program development, decision-making, documentation?
   4. Do these interactions follow a systematic pattern? If so, what is the pattern?

D. Does the organization have a purpose?
   1. Is there a statement of objectives?
   2. Is there a statement of projected outcomes?
   3. Is there a clear notion of what is to be produced?

It is by answering these fundamental questions that a Teacher Corps project can begin to determine whether it is an organization. Only if it is an organization can it be considered something to be managed. While groups do develop and do perform certain functions, they are usually not considered a part of the domain of management theory or management systems

unless the group and/or some individuals in the group perceives the entity that is in motion as an organization.

In some instances, projects have been designed to collect a group of people together to work on a problem with no intent of creating a manageable entity. In those instances, one should not consider the project an organization; rather, it may simply be an opportunity for interaction (social or professional) or an opportunity for group activity. Some group activity that is not managed may be purposeful. What makes purposeful group activity something to be managed is that the group and/or individuals in the group perceive themselves as an organization, as something that has boundaries, that has limits, that has ways of doing things that are common, that has some predetermined, commonly accepted objectives or outcome.

Once it is determined that there is an organization, the mode of operation needs to be specified. In a Teacher Corps project operation occurs in three areas:

MODES OF OPERATION

A. Program Development Systems
   1. What are the planning procedures?
   2. What are the implementation procedures?
   3. What are the analysis procedures?

B. Group Decision-Making Systems
   1. What are the problem identification procedures?
   2. What are the problem solving procedures?
   3. What are the evaluation procedures?

C. Documentation Systems
   1. What are the procedures that keep track of the activities?
   2. What are the procedures that keep track of progress toward outcomes? or modification of outcomes?

While much emphasis has been placed on decision-making style in Teacher Corps, it is essential from a management point of view to have set program development activities and documentation activities in place in order to nurture positive group decision-making style. What the normal activities that the program will utilize need to be specified somewhat in advance, so that the membership and leadership have neutral operational patterns to fall back on when decision-making gets difficult. In an industrial sense, one needs to establish the production line before one starts the raw material flowing through the factory. In a project

sense, one needs to establish the pattern for operations before one starts deciding how to allocate money, time, and people. Both processes need to operate in parallel. (See Figure 13) The project then can establish what technologies it will utilize in each area. (See Figure 14)

Each technology specifies a pattern and provides a record of activity. Thus, a method for knowing what is happening in the organization is established. The method for keeping records of who is doing what to whom when and being able to look back on these records allows management to track down what has gone wrong or what needs fixing. Again, in the industrial sense, the meters keeping record of the heat and density of the raw material indicate whether the product is ready to move to the next stage of the production line. In a management sense, one needs meters or techniques for maintaining group development and documentation. Individual managers require different degrees of specification. It is in specifying what should be there that a project director will identify those management technologies that are already in place in the project. It may very well be that in some projects the analysis will show there is no technology or system in place for analysis or for keeping track of certain kinds of activities. That discovery should not lead to the immediate need to fill the gap unless it is also perceived that the gap is what is causing dissonance in the ability of the project to interact efficiently to reach the outcomes. A sample completed listing of selected technologies compared to actual technology is provided in Figure 15.

The sample illustrates how a technology can be used in different areas. It should also be stated that no project has been found that has identified and utilized technology for each of the areas described above. The example shows a gap under "projected" evaluation and shows the use of logs in three areas under "actual." It is normal to expect that a Teacher Corps project will have developed a formal, efficient management system in no more than one or two of the areas specified. There may be some technologies being used some of the time in other areas, but the development of complete systems requires more energy and more resources than are presently available to Teacher Corps projects. They may also require more background and experience than are presently available in a Teacher Corps project. It is difficult in a collaborative decision-making process, where the membership is often considered coterminous with the leadership, to find everyone in the group competent with the tech-

FIGURE 13

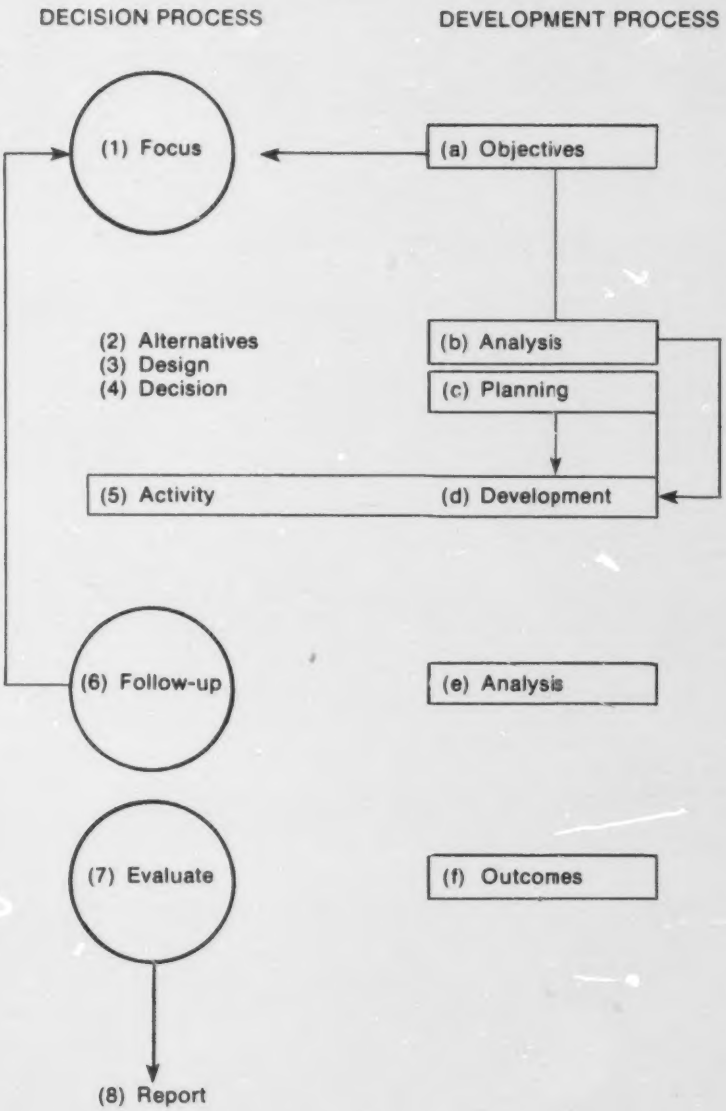

DECISION PROCESS
DEVELOPMENT PROCESS
(1) Focus
(a) Objectives
(2) Alternatives
(3) Design
(4) Decision
(b) Analysis
(c) Planning
(5) Activity
(d) Development
(6) Follow-up
(e) Analysis
(7) Evaluate
(f) Outcomes
(8) Report

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FIGURE 14

MANAGEMENT SYSTEM SELECTION MATRIX
KEY PURPOSE

Function	(A) Focus	(B) Climate	(C) Control
(1) Program Development	Management by Objectives	Team Planning Implementation & Analysis Systems	Systems Analysis
(2) Group Development	Performance Appraisal	Group Processes	Organization Development
(3) Documentation	Discrepancy Evaluation	Action Research	Impact Analysis

FIGURE 15

SELECTED TECHNOLOGIES COMPARED TO ACTUAL TECHNOLOGIES

	PROJECTED	ACTUAL
A. PROGRAM DEVELOPMENT		
1. Planning	Impact Analysis	Objective Setting
2. Implementation	Simplified Mgmt. by Objectives	Daily Logs
3. Analysis	.....	Discrepancy Evaluation
B. GROUP DECISION-MAKING		
1. Problem Identification	Needs Assessment	Needs Assessment
2. Problem Solving	Brainstorming	Brainstorming
3. Evaluation	Discrepancy Analysis .	Organization Development
C. DOCUMENTATION		
1. Activities	Mgmt. by Objectives ..	Logs
2. Outcomes	Mgmt. by Objectives ..	Discrepancy Evaluation

nology of impact analysis and management by objectives and discrepancy evaluation and needs assessment and brainstorming and program evaluation and historical record keeping and analytical record keeping. One will tend to find most individuals able in some of these areas and often find no individuals in the whole group capable in a particular technology at a particular time. The actual value of formal management systems for a Teacher Corps project is not that they are comprehensive, but that they allow for making more regular and predictable a part of the operations of the project.

DEVELOPMENT TECHNIQUES FOR GROUP DEVELOPMENT

In a Teacher Corps project, a key area of management concern is group development. In this area are those activities of the project that nurture and develop collaboration. The following are techniques, at different levels of sophistication in their development as formalized systems, that a project can use to assist in group development.

1. Organization Development
2. Group Processes
3. Performance Appraisal

In a Teacher Corps project, as in any other organizational effort that requires grouping persons together to get a program developed, group development is interrelated and interdependent with the techniques that are in use for program development and for documentation.

Organization development[5] is a frame of reference and a strategy used by individuals or groups to take advantage of the dynamics of the group and the organization to solve problems the organization and group are willing to address. Effective organization development requires extensive and on-going training and support from an outsider who assists the group in improving its efficiency in understanding itself and the organization and developing effective strategies for resolving problems. More and more patterns found to be effective in different situations are now being reported in the literature. Yet, organization development remains a very young, and some would say immature, technology. The key element of organization development is the conscious effort of recording or somehow making objective and public the actual activities and feelings of the

individuals involved in the group and in the organization. Organization development is an effort to develop practical applications of the behavioral sciences to organizations and the management of organizations. By making as much reality as public as possible, organization development gives the individuals, groups, and the organization control of the destiny of the organization. Over time, organization development allows an organization to narrow the discrepancy between what is, what it would like to be, how it perceives itself, and what it really is. The major stages of organization development are:

1. organization and group commitment to process
2. selection of acceptable outside/inside facilitator
3. information collection and recording
4. group planning
5. group and individual action
6. use of organization improvement processes
7. use of individual improvement processes
8. analysis of improved performance
9. repeat

It is at steps 3, 4, 6, and 8 that formal management techniques discussed in the previous section on program development are integrated into the organization development process. It is the choice and use of these techniques by the group that sometimes leads to confusing a program development technique for focusing such as management by objectives with organization development. Group problem solving (OD) is different from objective setting (MBO). Organization development is interested in what the group does to solve the problem. MBO is interested in the clarification of an objective, the project.

Few examples of OD in Teacher Corps are available. Few projects report the selection and use of an outside/inside facilitator on an ongoing basis. Some project directors report acting as facilitators, but role conflict, particularly in situations requiring authoritative decisions, lead to the breakdown of the OD process. With the advent of documentation as a major concern for Teacher Corps, the opportunity for OD type systems is available if care is taken to distinguish the facilitator from the documentor (observer/recorder) role. Some projects have installed regular team building activities utilizing trained facilitators as a move in the direction of utilizing OD for group development.

Such an effort needs to be complemented by a more rigorous acceptance and definition of the various teams (groups) assigned to differing tasks in a Teacher Corps project so that team-based program development techniques, conditions, and processes can be distinguished from OD-based group development for organization stability.

Group processes[6] are those techniques that are used to help groups work together. The range of possible processes is extensive. One series of training manuals has recorded over 300 exercises for improving group climate. The reliability of certain known processes for actually leading to improved group performance in a particular situation remains quite low. Not enough is known about the predictable interaction of persons brought together in a group to allow for more than a suggestion of trial and error.

Another key characteristic of a Teacher Corps group is collaboration. Efforts continue to describe collaboration in terms that identify how a group and members in a group or joining such a group need to behave to be called collaborative. Most projects talk of the need for techniques that:

1. build trust
2. encourage risk taking and experimentation
3. encourage sharing responsibility and resources
4. allow for negotiation and face saving
5. allow for accountability

The most visible forms of group process tend to be group meetings to reach decisions where agreed upon decision-making processes are followed. Yet, few have articulated more than generalized patterns for decision making in and by groups. Validation of information, selection of alternatives, conflict resolution are all seen as long and tedious processes. One commonly accepted group process for decision making is:

1. presentation of problem (crisis) by leader
2. presentation of relevant information by individuals
3. discussion of problem and available information by all
4. identification of probable solutions by all
5. selection of preferred solution by one individual
6. confirmation of solution by designated leader or individual

7. determination of action step(s) by individual responsible for solution.

Performance appraisal[7] is a set of techniques used to measure the actual behavior of an individual or group in the performance of the job assigned by the organization. The key element of performance appraisal is the creation of a list of descriptors of effective acceptable practice, sometimes called standards, that allows an observer/rater to score how much of a behavior an individual or group exhibit. The utility of a performance appraisal system is that ratings are made explicit in observable terms. In other words, job descriptions are rewritten in terms of tasks to be accomplished to implement successfully the organization's functions and/or objectives. An example of such a system is illustrated in Figure 16 developed by a public school system to evaluate teacher performance.

Similarly, a group set of behaviors could specify acceptable behavior for the group in reaching project goals. This would lead to a group self-rating scale similar to the one in Figure 17:

MANAGEMENT TECHNIQUES FOR DOCUMENTATION

A project documents its activities through logs, products which are translated into reports. In addition, an outside observer/recorder can be utilized to collect information about the processes and products in use in the project. In terms of project management, the utility of documents is in how they help the project manager control, create climate, or focus the events and activities of the project so that the group development or program development activities can be adjusted. Documentation is a neutral recording of events that allows the manager to understand and then modify. There are three techniques for organizing documents for organization understanding.

1. Impact Analysis
2. Action Research
3. Discrepancy Evaluation

Impact analysis[8] is the application of social system theory to the information available about an organization. Impact analysis differs from systems analysis in that it focuses on identifying and giving value to the forces influencing events and activities. It draws causal or hypothetical inferences about what is going on. The key element of impact analysis is the listing of forces, indi-

PUBLIC SCHOOLS
TEACHER EVALUATION INSTRUMENT

Name _____ Date of Planning Session _____

School _____ Date of Observation _____

Date of Feedback _____

_____ Date of Observation _____

Supervisor _____ Date of Evaluation _____

	Observation *check ONE*		Rating *check ONE*			
			acceptable	needs improvement	unacceptable	not observed
I. *TEACHING PERFORMANCE*						
(A) DIAGNOSIS - The Teacher						
(1) Gives children tests to find out what they know.						
(1) Gives children tests to find out what they know.	Yes	No				
(2) Has a collection of each child's work for use in analysis of development.	Yes	No				
(3) Analysis strengths and weaknesses from collected information and identifies areas of improvement.	Yes	No				
COMMENTS:						
(B) PLANNING - *The Teacher*						
(1) Uses department or grade level curriculum to identify materials, techniques, and resources.	Yes	No				
(2) Organizes lessons to attain pre-stated goals and to meet student needs.	Yes	No				
(3) Prepares a variety of materials and techniques to help individual student needs meet stated goals.	Yes	No				
COMMENTS:						
(C) LEARNING ENVIRONMENT - *The Teacher*						
(1) Keeps all children within sight to assure that they are doing what they are supposed to do.	Yes	No				

	Observation *check ONE*		Rating *check ONE*			
			acceptable	needs improvement	unacceptable	not observed
(2) Uses materials and media that are adapted to student needs and interest.	Yes	No				
(3) Uses techniques that require each individual child to interact with materials and media.	Yes	No				
COMMENTS:						
(D) TEACHING - *The Teacher*						
(1) Is consistent in classroom management—rules, grading, discipline.	Yes	No				
(2) Bases instruction on each individual student's needs with his/her interaction with the teacher, the						
(2) Bases instruction on each individual student's needs and his/her interaction with the teacher, the materials, and the environment.	Yes	No				
(3) Utilizes a variety of teaching styles in an organized manner to create an open, energetic, lively class where individual students are motivated to move toward instructional goals.	Yes	No				
COMMENTS:						
(E) EVALUATION AND REPORTING - *The Teacher*						
(1) Tests students regularly to determine their development.	Yes	No				
(2) Maintains a continuous program of assessment and redesign of instructional program.	Yes	No				
(3) Documents student's progress and reports to parents, students, other teachers, and administrators.	Yes	No				
COMMENTS:						

	Observation *check ONE*		Rating *check ONE*			
			acceptable	needs improvement	unacceptable	not observed
II. PERSONAL AND PROFESSIONAL PERFORMANCE						
(1) is accessible to students, parents, administrators, other teachers.	Yes	No				
(2) Respects the rights of and co-operates with students, parents, administrators, other teachers.	Yes	No				
(3) Recognizes individuals and develops positive relations with individual students, parents, administrators, other teachers.	Yes	No				
COMMENTS:						
(B) MANAGERIAL - *The Teacher*.						
(1) Is at proper station at proper time.	Yes	No				
(2) Meets deadlines and maintains equipment, materials and supplies in proper order.	Yes	No				
(3) Maintains accurate and clear records.	Yes	No				
(4) Follows established policies, procedures and protocol to seek change.	Yes	No				
(5) Maintains student safety and well being.	Yes	No				
(6) Complies with School, System and Board Policies and Procedures.	Yes	No				
COMMENTS:						
(C) GROWTH - *The Teacher*						
(1) Participates in Professional Evaluation System.	Yes	No				
(2) Develops and implements Professional Improvement Plan.	Yes	No				
(3) Identifies and Implements Two Goals to improve instruction in her/his classroom.	Yes	No				
COMMENTS:						

FIGURE 17

GROUP PERFORMANCE IN THE PROJECT

Group: _____

1. Sensitivity (low) 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 (high)

   Is alert to happenings in the project, has ability to pick up things, notice accurately what is going on.

2. Diagnostic ability 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 (high)

   Is able to understand *why* things happened as they did, has ability to explain project difficulties, as a basis for corrective or supportive action.

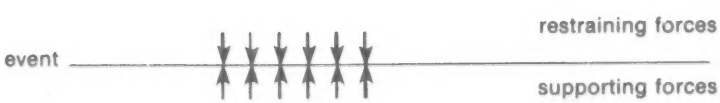
3. Behavioral skill — task 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 (high)

   Helps the project to make progress on the task.

4. Behavioral skill — maintenance 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 (high)

   Helps to maintain good working relationship among groups in the project.

5. Over-all effectiveness as a project group. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 (high)



viduals, resources, events that have an effect (positive, negative, neutral) in the organization and on key groups or individuals. Force field analysis is a form of impact analysis. (See Figure 18)

Much of what is being written about change in organizations is impact analysis in nature. The effort by Argyris to develop an explanation of organization behavior which contrasts the theory in practice and the theory in use is an attempt to develop a comprehensive method for comparing:

WHAT IS ←	WHAT IS MANAGED	→ WHAT IS DESIRED
REAL →	ACTUAL	→ PURPOSE

Documents record all of what is happening. Management systems establish a pattern to reach a purpose (objective). The organization's life develops between the two as resources, techniques, individuals, and groups reach out of what is to what could be.

In a Teacher Corps project, impact analysis techniques are often used for planning. Impact analysis can be applied to all events of record in the project and, as such, serves an analysis function more than a planning or development function.

Action research[9] includes those techniques used by managers to keep track of what is going on in the project within a certain policy intention. The key element of action research is the collection of information that describes what is from the point of view of how it fits a direction. A case study is an excellent example of action research. As distinct from impact analysis which seeks reasons for things happening. Action research seeks to describe how something is an example of an idea or model. Much of the recording of events in Teacher Corps projects is in the form of action research. The records are statements of an effort to develop a program by a group of people in a specified context. A Teacher Corps manager uses such records to prepare quarterly and annual reports that demonstrate that events are within an approved context.

In addition, action research can provide the manager with clues about how things are going among people and within the known or expected patterns of the project. These hints or suggestions about the state of affairs provide evidence for intervening to improve the climate of a group or of the team action plan to increase efficiency and effectiveness.

Discrepancy evaluation[10] includes those techniques that allow the comparison of what was projected with what actually happened. The technique can be applied to events, people, activities, resources, objectives, etc. The key element is the noting of differences, not the valuing of the differences. Most managers use some form of discrepancy evaluation for budget preparation as well as program evaluation. (See Figure 19)

FIGURE 19

(A) BUDGET ANALYSIS

	Budget	Expenditure to Date	Remainder
Personnel	$50,000	$46,000	$ 4,000
Materials & Supplies	5,000	8,000	(3,000)
Travel	4,000	7,000	(3,000)
Other	5,000	3,000	2,000
TOTAL	$64,000	$64,000	— 0 —

(B) PROGRAM EVALUATION

Objectives	Outcomes	Rating
to develop an in-service program	four workshops three courses one needs assessment	60%
to improve school climate	changed 55 curriculum trained 20 teachers created resource center	80%

Most Teacher Corps projects use some form of discrepancy evaluation for the project as a whole. What is not so evident is the use of a similar technique for reviewing program plans. One project discovered that reviewing their MBO work plan and simply checking off what had been accomplished did provide for a focused discrepancy evaluation that targeted areas of concern. Improved program development resulted from the reduction of gap areas which tended to be in the materials production area. In this case, the planning document itself served as the 'record' for discrepancy evaluation during the program analysis stage.

CONCLUSION

In this chapter a broad view of management technologies applicable to Teacher Corps projects has been presented. Also presented are the primary issues to be considered in choosing

among those technologies to fashion a management system. Purposely avoided is the presentation of one formal approach to managing Teacher Corps projects because of the variety of climates in which they exist. The range of skill and expertise of their participants, and the belief that the challenge of facilitating constructive changes in teacher education lies in the development of unique responses to unique conditions.

FOOTNOTES:

[1]There are three somewhat conflicting intellectual traditions from which systematic management techniques have developed in the U.S.

[2]Frank W. Banghart, *Educational Systems Analysis*, London: MacMillan, 1969.

[3]Gerald Zaltman, Robert Duncan, and Jonny Holbeck, *Innovations and Organizations*. New York: Wylie & Sons, 1973; Eileen Mosley and Andrew Silver, "A Film Director's Approach to Managing Creativity," *Harvard Business Review* (March-April, 1977).

[4]Dale D. McConkey, *MBO for Nonprofit Organizations*, New York: AMA COM., 1975.

[5]Richard A. Schmuck, Philip J. Runkel, Jane H. Arends, and Richard I. Arends, *The Second Handbook of Organization Development in Schools*, Palo Alto: Mayfield, 1977.

[6]Matthew B. Miles, *Learning to Work in Groups*, New York: Teachers College Press, 1971.

[7]Leslie E. This, *A Guide to Effective Management: Practical Applications from Behavioral Science*, Reading: Addison-Wesley, 1974.

[8]Sherman Krupp, *Pattern in Organization Analysis*, New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1961.

[9]Dale Mann, *Policy Decision Making in Education*, New York: Teachers College Press, 1975.

[10]Malcolm Provers, *Discrepancy Evaluation*, Palo Alto: McCutchan, 1971.

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2. *The Harvard Business Review* published by the Graduate School of Management at Harvard University, Cambridge, Mass.

3. Various publications of the *American Management Association*, Washington, D.C.

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4

An Application of Systematic Management Techniques In Teacher Corps Projects: A Response

By

Tom Wolfe

Introduction

The chance to write this chapter on the management of a Teacher Corps project comes at an opportune time and place for me. The 9th/11th Cycle Project I have directed is ending this summer, and I have naturally begun to look back at the project and my role in it. This process of retrospection has been helped by the reading of Roland Goddu's chapter, "The Application of Systematic Management Techniques in Teacher Corps Projects." For these reasons, this article will use ideas expressed by Roland Goddu as a springboard for a discussion of the management and survival concerns that have been important ones for me and that I feel any Teacher Corps director may encounter during the life of the project.

Application of Systematic Management Techniques in Teacher Corps Projects: A Brief Review and Some Implications

The provocative ideas in the preceding chapter tied together in a logical approach to being a Teacher Corps director. There is (1) a number of ways of conceptualizing a social system and it is important for a director to have an understanding of the taxonomy of the total system in which she/he operates. This understanding (2) should focus on the concerns of the different role

groups and individuals connected to or involved in the project and the demands and norms of the different institutions participating in the project. Based upon an understanding of this context, (3) the director should look at a wide range of different managerial strategies in an attempt (4) to match strategies with project goals and processes. The director should expect the management design, once chosen (5) to be emergent over time.

Practices of scientific management as embodied in the development and pursuit of a *one best way* to manage Teacher Corps projects will not work. There are some strong reasons for the shortcomings of scientific management. First, anyone attending the National Conference for Teacher Corps in the summer cannot help but be struck by the remarkable diversity of projects and people. Moreover, the funding guidelines for Teacher Corps reflect many of the racial concerns and educational innovations that have been in the American consciousness for the past ten years. Cultural diversity, exceptional children, research, competency-based teacher education and community/school partnership are just a few. Thus, consideration of local context is a necessary factor in the development of any Teacher Corps management plan.

Second, research has shown that effective inservice projects must expect to go through a process in which institutions, project goals, and people change. To maintain a purity of purpose, goals, and understanding of others and still to get things done with a wide range of people and institutions whose values are often naturally irreconcilable is to doom the project to failure. Finally, one of the central tenets of Teacher Corps is that each project serves the needs of the people/community and is not a lay-on from Washington, a university, or school system administration. Given this strongly stated value which is evident in the funding regulations, any Teacher Corps theory or practice which is not needs responsive or flexible is profoundly inconsistent with Teacher Corps/Washington philosophy.

However, there are other implications in Roland Goddu's article which concern me as a director. The review of social system theory with an eye towards selecting the most useful technology for determining the social context of the project and the review of different management techniques or strategies in order to select the ones most suited to project goals and processes imply a director's knowledgeability, training, and experience that may not be the case. Choosing, changing, adapting, and blending theories imply a remarkable sophistication in a director's

understanding in order to use them. Choosing the right blend of theory and technique seems to imply that it is possible for the director to understand the systems in which she/he is called to operate and that the parameters for the project are clear and understandable. A corollary to the implication that the parameters are clear and understandable is that the space and time that the Teacher Corps project operates under has the same constraints as the institutions and people with which it deals. Finally, there is the implication that although the director must be ready for her/his management design to be emergent, she/he must also be able to choose the original design and change that design over time as different project needs surface.

A Composite of the Director Experience, Including My Own

These assumptions about directors and management — the high degree of their knowledge and experience, their ability to understand the parameters within which the project must achieve its goals, the continuity of space and time between project and institution, and the director's ability to choose management designs — are not consistent with my experience. More important, while the concepts deal with issues that are of vital concern to directors, they are dealt with in a context of control and systemic analysis while the director, like any other persons, may be operating within a natural context of vulnerability and personal concerns. A brief review of my own and other directors' experiences can serve as an example.

I was fishing in Maine three summers ago when the director of our project called me, told me he had resigned to take another job, and suggested that I should consider the directorship. At the time, the project was two months old, was working with a school system that had had a poor experience with its last Teacher Corps project, and I didn't know any of the important school system people with whom I was to work. Moreover, I was a soft money employee of the university, without either my degree or administrative experience with that university system. I viewed the prospect of being the director with some alarm. However, at our first staff meeting I was unanimously chosen as the director, more by a process of elimination than anything else. The Teacher Corps staff and supervisor made the decision for the university and school system. Other directors assume responsibility and leadership in similarly difficult situations. The Teacher Corps proposal is written by other faculty members, perhaps even the dean or department chairperson; but the director is conscripted

to lead a project that she/he has no real knowledge of during those crucial first months when the school system and university are learning how each other operates. Perhaps the director is an untenured faculty member who is vitally concerned about her/his security and yet must pursue a set of goals that does not fit with either the formal or informal reward structures. Other directors have been asked to take over the operation of projects in mid-stream when people's expectations of their behavior have been set by their previous roles. Other directors exist at the end of the tenuous life line of soft money.

The nature of the project adds to the difficulties of being a director. From the university's perspective, Teacher Corps is soft money and inservice oriented. The first characteristic places it clearly outside the formal ongoing structure. The fact that the soft money may make supplies, travel, clerical help, research assistance, and summer money more readily available to Teacher Corps staff usually increases resentment on the part of other faculty and further widens the distance between the project and the rest of the department or school. Teacher Corps' inservice focus also has served to separate it from the university/college mainstream. The formal and informal reward structures do not support university people involved in off campus projects; many other university personnel feel uncomfortable or do not wish to become involved in working in schools, and the university's definitions of learning may often be at odds with effective inservice definitions of learning as they translate into programs. From the school system's side, I'm sure I am not the only Teacher Corps person who has been told something like, "Sure, it's fine for you to say try this or that, but we are the ones who have to stay behind after you've gone in two years and deal with the consequences." In addition, research shows that local systems are more opportunistic than rational when they apply for federal money. The school system does not develop a need, wait for the right grant, and then submit a proposal. Rather, it usually tailors proposals to meet funding criteria. Thus, a Teacher Corps director may well begin the project without any true understanding or appreciation of how the system will pursue the stated goals of the project.

The above points out the fact that the Teacher Corps director is apt to feel neither here nor there, not part of the space/time continua of the institutions involved. Moreover, these feelings of ambiguity are heightened by the fact that the director, despite the belief that the leader is supposed to know, to have the answers, cannot always understand the parameters within which she/he

operates. How much information and what kind does Teacher Corps/Washington want to support its active lobbying on Capitol Hill? What are the reasons behind the series of "lay ons" that the Washington office asks the projects to participate in? Or, what is the direction and overall purposes of my network? How are other projects using the network? How much time and energy will it take? How will that expense of time and energy impact on my project? What is Washington's stake in the success of the network? Why is Washington asking our network to review and fund a particular activity when it doesn't seem to be of any benefit to us? The answers to questions like these may not be forthcoming. Moreover, the director, because of the project's marginal characteristics, may not be part of the informal norms of the participating institutions and thus never fully understand the parameters within which she/he must act.

Finally, there is the added ambiguity that exists between Teacher Corps rhetoric and the practice of leadership and the press of making decisions. The rhetoric clearly espouses a collaborative mode of operation. Concepts like understanding diversity, community control, collaborative decision-making; clear statements to the effect that the university is not to dictate school system policy; and mechanisms like a local community coordinator and an advisory board representative of local constituents all imply collaboration. However, there are Washington "lay-ons," network secretaries who can make important network decisions, and the method by which I was chosen director was unilateral at best.

I do not mean to imply that the unilateral decisions I mentioned are bad, but they do add to the ambiguity that a Teacher Corps director will feel surrounds her/his role. For me, this ambiguity is complicated greatly by the norms of leadership currently operating in our formal institutions — norms of strength, knowledge, clarity, certainty, experience. Many of the norms are attributes that it is difficult for a director to have, given the project's natural context.

Some Generalizations About the Context for Leadership in a Teacher Corps Project

The composite picture provides a base for some generalizations about the context for leadership in a Teacher Corps project, the nature of the environment, and the project itself.

The environment of any Teacher Corps Project can be characterized by its complexity and unpredictability. The number of different institutions which act upon the project, their own complexity, and the fact that the roles of student, teacher, and community disappear in a welter of different needs, motivations, and characteristics the more involved the project becomes in the local system are all evidence of a "turbulent" environment according to Emery and Trist:

> These are environments in which there are dynamic processes arising from the field itself which create significant variances for the component systems... we are postulating dynamic properties that arise not simply from the interaction of the systems . . . where the dynamic field processes emerge as an unplanned consequence of the actions of the 'constituent systems."[1]

A number of instances in which "the best laid plans" of our project have produced unplanned responses occur to me. One semester our training design seemed to be a rational solution to the needs of the community and professionals. A retrospective analysis showed that even though the design was needs responsive for several problems, it also intensified some of the uncertainty and anxiety that surrounded other questions people had. This "turbulence," even though we had discussed the fact that it might occur as we planned our training design, happened in ways which surprised us, involved our own emotional responses in ways that decreased our effectiveness, and made the semester a difficult one to work through. Donald Schon uses the literary analogy of *War and Peace* to point out the absurdity of the assumption that a leader can: know all the variables of a given situation, understand how they are interacting, and predict how any given action she/he might make or initiate on the part of her/his system will affect the total complex environment.

> Tolstoy understands real-life uncertainty. The implementing of public policy works in a situation whose inherent ambiguity expresses itself through the incompatible perspectives of the key actors . . . The conflict of incompatible perspective cannot be resolved only by waiting to hear more of what the data say. New data may yield new perspectives . . .[2]

The turbulence and unknown parameters of the Teacher Corps project's environment are complicated by the fact that the

projects are what I would call "temporary systems." Gant, South, and Hansen have taken the concepts of temporary systems and have shown how they are directly relevant to Teacher Corps projects:

> Technically speaking, a long-term educational project varying in length from a few months to several years is not a temporary system. Sociologists and organizational theorists refer to projects as "collateral" or "parallel" organizations. Project directors and managers — particularly those who operate in schools — will find, nonetheless, many useful and helpful concepts in the technology of temporary systems. Projects may not be temporary systems using the definition of "temporary" in this book, however, projects certainly are not "permanent" systems. In fact, they typically operate within a permanent system so that many of the problems of entry and interaction are intensified.[3]

The norms of a Teacher Corps project share many of the characteristics of a temporary system. For example:

> jobs should be flexible and partly over-lapping, permitting group problem solving; research and implementing combined; coordination through information, reliance on self-discipline; change initiated and managed throughout the system . . .[4]

The "temporary system" project norms will run counter to many of the larger system norms. Moreover, the existence of the project to improve already existing conditions, to change the way things are done, will naturally threaten people's self-concept and sense of place.

In addition to time and the notion of temporary, it is possible to conceptualize the space of a Teacher Corps project as liminal. Turner has used the concept of a liminal organization in looking at temporary, ritual systems in some societies. However, he does make a special point of talking about liminal or fringe systems which exist for longer periods of time at the edge of our large, complex Western society. He draws up a rather lengthy list of attributes of liminal organizations as contrasted with those of the status system, referring to those organizations which exist as part of the fabric of society. Some of the liminal attributes listed are:

transition/state
communities/structure
equality/inequality

absence of status/status
charismatic leader/leader who carries out laws[5]

A brief listing of some of the Teacher Corps characteristics and norms will hopefully serve to draw the parallel. Teacher Corps projects are soft-money (transition) projects. They are characterized by emphasis on collaboration and the overall goal to improve the education opportunities for children from low income families (equality). The project exists as a consultant-type organization at the local level, not really belonging to an institution, and is paralleled at the national level by looking at the Office of Education organizational chart and finding that teacher Corps is distinctly apart from the mainstream flow of power and status (absence of status). Much of the rhetoric of Teacher Corps deals with togetherness and being a family (communities) and much of the dynamism, perhaps even the continued existence of Teacher Corps, is due to the strength of Bill Smith (charismatic leader). An analysis of the new regulations and much of the dialogue during last summer's national conference provides an interesting comment to the idea of Teacher Corps as a liminal, temporary system. The new regulations emphasize rigorous research and dissemination strategies; active, demonstrable incorporation of Teacher Corps by universities and school systems; and longer time periods for projects. These regulations and the questions whether or not Teacher Corps had not come to a natural end as a viable liminal organization seem to point to an attempt to redefine Teacher Corps as an institution that exists within the mainstream, and not at the fringe.

The sense of disconnectedness a director might feel as part of a liminal and temporary system is complicated *by a particular problem inservice systems face of having to work between theory and practice:*

> It is often difficult for persons in academic settings to accept the notion that people in practice and action settings possess and use "knowledge" in informing their choices and decisions and in guiding and evaluating their actions unless that "knowledge" is akin in form and organization to the "knowledge" which they build and test and communicate in their academic enterprises. And it is difficult for actionists and practitioners in field settings, especially when they have been schooled in academic ways of "knowing" and academic definitions of "ideal knowledge" to defend and affirm their practical "knowledge" as an alterna-

tive, in some respects at least, to the "knowledge" professed by academics.[6]

People have referred to inservice projects as the interface between university and school systems. To carry the notion of interface a bit further, it is not really a place but a concept that denotes the boundaries of two systems. Inservice projects, then, are asked to straddle two institutions which may have deep values that are not consonant. Knowledge production, or theory, is not the same as knowledge utilization, or practice. Thus the director of an inservice Teacher Corps project operates in a time and space that is quite different from either of the two institutions it is supposed to bridge.

The final point about the context for leadership of Teacher Corps projects *is that it is difficult to train for. Moreover, most directors come to the position without the necessary experience or expertise.* Sarason states that educational administration is definitely not a logical step from teaching or other positions.[7] Other research, for example, the lengthy interviews with principals conducted by the Leadership and Learning Cooperative, have shown that these principals did not learn from their previous work experiences or courses.[8] Rather, most of their learning was gained on the job, from other colleagues, or from models. I feel that the concept, as it applies to principals, is equally valid for other educational administrators. A brief review of the composite of the directors earlier in this chapter points out the fact that many of them do not prepare to be administrators. Moreover, the facts that the project is liminal and temporary, more of a boundary than system and that projects often are asked to leave their own permanent system, suspend in a way their own goals and growth, make it likely that even if they have had administrative experience or training, it is likely to be as misleading as it is helpful. There has been a great deal said about the fact that a number of Teacher Corps projects have the same director through a number of cycles. Given the above argument, perhaps this 'nepotism' is a good thing.

Management Concerns for Teacher Corps Directors

The context for Teacher Corps leadership is no different in an additional important aspect than the context for leadership in most other situations in our society. It is precisely this aspect that makes consideration of the personal perspective of directors' management concerns difficult.

> In its (or fantasy of how the leader is supposed to be in any situation) more differentiated form the leader becomes aware that her/his motives have a public and private component and that the latter is tinged with guilt because its components are in such contrast not only to the more primitive fantasy but to the leader's perceptions of how others want her/him to be, namely selfless, rational, and quite in control of her/his own destiny . . . He learns that one does not publicly proclaim one's self-doubts even though one is quite aware one has them.[9]

However, the director is no different from any other member of the project in that she/he has important personal concerns. These concerns are similar in a generic way to the concerns many writers have said individuals feel in their involvement in social systems or groups, namely: identity, acceptance/inclusion, power/control, and information concerns. These general concerns can be translated into specific questions that a director might ask her/himself about her/his role and influence in the Project.

Identity — What is the nature of my role? How does the role of director fit my self-concept and growth needs? After this project is over, what happens to me?

Acceptance/Inclusion — How am I going to become familiar enough with the right management skills, experience, and processes to do a good job? Who are the people I can turn to for help, information, experience? Given the in-betweenness of an in-service project, where will my informal network of support come from? How is this project connected to other institutions, how should it be, and what should I be doing to maximize this connectedness? How is the project going to relate to the regional network, the technical assistance centers, the national office?

Power/Control — What power does the project have to change the norms of the other systems, the behavior of university or school system personnel, or the degree to which the community is included in making decisions that affect it? How does the project's temporariness and liminality enhance or detract from its power as a change agent? How

much control do I have over the project's being effective in achieving its stated goals? What model of decision-making is most effective for the project?

Information — What are the norms of the systems I have to operate in and how can I get to know them? How much and what kind of information do I need to make good decisions and how can I get it? What mechanisms for communication will be effective across system boundaries? What information do I share and with whom?

Admittedly, these categories and questions overlap. Elements of environmental turbulence, system time/space characteristics, the nature of inservice projects' relation to theory and practice, and the fantasy of leader invulnerability are also directly or indirectly implicit in most of them. More important, these elements should be considered in any provisional answer.

Some Concluding Remarks

The temptation to end this paper here is strong. First, the opportunity to reflect on my experience as a Teacher Corps director and make some personal meaning of that experience has been enjoyable. It is a lot easier to think about the issues retrospectively if I do not have to prescribe solutions as part of the process. Second, the "solutions," if they can be called that, depend so much on the individual director and how she/he acts within the particular social context that making them relevant may mean raising them to a hopelessly abstract level. However, here is a list of ideas (which grow out of the concepts of the preceding sections) that I would have liked to have had in my head three years ago.

1. *Develop a taxonomy for social systems and try different conceptual frames to view the systems you operate within.* This is what Roland Goddu emphasizes in the preceding chapter. A good management system is designed to facilitate, oversee, and control people's work within an organization. However, Roland Goddu emphasizes that his management system should be chosen only after people have some idea about the nature of the social system in which they act and have chosen a coherent set of concepts with which they make meaning of those systems. It is important to make the distinction between understanding the

system and controlling it. Accepting Emery and Trist's notion of a turbulent system and the "in-betweenness" of an inservice project, controlling the environment and accurately predicting the future become impossible for Teacher Corps directors. The final point that Hills makes in his article, "Some Notes on the Methodology of Science for Researchers and Administrators in Education," is that much of the research and knowledge production in the field of education is geared toward the predicting of behavior. The use of focused studies with independent and dependent variables will be limited unless there is some understanding of the derivation of variables and how they operate in the larger social field. He likens the problem to chess science:

> Researchers in our field seem to be engaged so intensively in writing more specific sentences about such subjects as the "captivating behavior" of kings that they never get around to writing more general sentences about the behavior of kings in relation to other pieces. Thus, we know a great deal more about the capturing behavior of kings than we do about the roles of the game as a whole, to say nothing about the rules of which those roles are special cases.[10]

Understanding the environment gives the director the advantage of being able to make the ad hoc decisions which will be necessary to understand the possible long and short range consequences of the project's activities and to cope resiliently with the unexpected, irrational events which will mess up the smooth workings of the management system.

2. Emery and Trist discuss what they consider to be maladaptive responses to a turbulent environment: superficiality, means-ends insistence, and dissociation.[11] The first refers to people's unwillingness to link social action to the deeper set of values which underlies it; the second refers to people reducing everything to a set of hierarchically ordered goals and means without ever connecting any of the goals together; the third refers to people's dissociation with others. All three are strongly characterized by reductionism, or refusing to see the complexity in social fields, and passivity, the unwillingness to act upon social fields. The previous paragraph deals with the need to admit the complexity, unknowableness, turbulence of the environment and the need to attempt to understand the social fields within which one operates. *It is also important for a director to feel she/he is acting upon or within that social field.* This may be hard at times when the process of mutual adaptation seems to be all one-way

or when unexpected consequences make it difficult for the project to work towards its goals. However, passivity and not choosing a direction are draining in the long run and subtly sap the energy of the director and the project.

3. Action and choice are easier if the director has a formal or informal support mechanism within the project. The regional network, staff members, school system or university personnel are all possible sources of support. The developing theory on the understanding of informal networks holds that the nature and extent of the support possible through informal networks is rich and varied. I do not subscribe to the myth of the leader as all-powerful, all knowing, and alone; and I know that I do not have those characteristics.

4. *Try to ground the project in a set of values and assumptions about inservice social change, people, systems, and find time to test the values against the actions you take.* Argyris and Schon differentiate espoused theories, or the set of values or principles we believe in, from theories-in-use, those values or principles that are present and discoverable from observing our behavior.[12] The process of examining both theories and examining the degree of congruence between them can be important for two reasons. First the Teacher Corps project is an engrossing and exciting experience in which the director, regardless of whether she/he planned to, risks her/himself in some way and thus becomes a model of changes for others in the project. Looking at the nature of espousal theories and theories-in-use and the congruence between them thus becomes not only a way for people in the project to learn about their own personal change and get support for their risk-taking but also a model of open inquiry, learning, and change for the project as a whole. Second, being clear about the value base of the project will help staff act confidently in the project's complex, turbulent environment.

5. *Accept the idea of the Teacher Corps project as a temporary, liminal system that currently exists at the boundaries of other systems.* Accepting this characterization does not lead to inaction because nothing the project does will last or be let into other systems. Temporary system theory and ideas about liminality are rich with the power of these systems. Briefly, this power resides in the fact that the temporary or liminal system usually is a manifestation of a value or set of values that the larger society espouses but does not always use. In addition, the temporary/liminal system is outside the traditional structure and, in some way, not vulnerable to the routine daily demands of that structure

which requires so much compromise of an individual's feelings and desires. The temporary/liminal system has the power or magic of the unknown or unusual. Ways of maximizing the impact of this kind of change oriented system on school systems and universities rather than trying to be like them should be pursued. The notion of a temporary/liminal system being a manifestation of a value that the larger society espouses seems to fit well with the previous suggestion of grounding the project clearly in a set of values.

FOOTNOTES:

[1]F.E. Emery, and E.L. Trist, *Towards a Social Ecology*, London: Plenum Press, 1973, p. 52.

[2]Donald A. Schon, *Beyond the Stable State*. New York: Random House, 1971, p. 213.

[3]J. Gant, O. South, and J.H. Hansen, *Temporary Systems*. Tallahassee, Florida. 1977, p. 189.

[4]*Ibid*. p. 27-28.

[5]Victor W. Turner, *The Ritual Process*. Chicago: Aldine Publishing Co., 1969, p. 106-107.

[6]Kenneth D. Benne, "Educational Field Experience as the Negotiation of Different Cognitive Worlds," in Bennis, Benne, Chin, and Corey. *The Planning of Change* (3rd ed.) New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1976, p. 166.

[7]Seymour Sarason, *The Culture of the School and the Problem of Change*. Boston: Allyn and Bacon, 1971.

[8]I am indebted to continuing conversations with BArry Jentz, currently one of three partners in the Leadership and Learning Cooperative in Concord, Mass., for the opportunity to explore and develop ideas about leadership and learning.

[9]Seymour Sarason, *The Creation of Settings and the New Society*, San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, 1972, p. 218.

[10]R. Jean Hills, "Some Notes on the Methodology of Science for Researchers and Administrators in Education," in Monahan, William G., *Theoretical Dimensions of Educational Administration*, New York: MacMillan Publishing, 1975, p. 143.

[11]Emery and Trist, *op cit.*, p. 59.

[12]Argyris and Schon, *op cit.*, Chapter 2.

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5

Management For Change: Ideologies Of Consensus And Conflict

By

Gerald J. Pine

I
Introduction

Change through collaboration and cooperation is what Teacher Corps is all about. Teacher Corps projects are organized efforts for change designed to: operationalize different educational approaches that integrate the training of new and experienced teachers;[1] demonstrate better ways for schools and teachers to function using educational products, processes, people, and practices within the schools; and create comprehensive approaches for educational change and reform through the collaboration of universities, local school systems, state educational agencies, and local communities.[2] Through collaboration Teacher Corps projects attempt to introduce and demonstrate needed innovation and change to increase the effectiveness of education for low income, special needs and minority group children and their parents — constituencies which are often educationally alienated and disenfranchised.[3]

The complex nature of a Teacher Corps project — the fact that it is a temporary organization existing within a limited time frame in a temporary relationship with a university and a local school system, two permanent institutions and social systems with different norms, values and behavioral regularities — generates a number of challenging, unique, and sophisticated problems.[4] Although a project may be physically located at a specific school site and within a specific university department, the workplace of the Teacher Corps project is actually an environment formed by: committees and subgroups within these two organi-

zations; professional organizations; community organizations and parents; and other community social service agencies. Within this environment Teacher Corps attempts to affect education by having: 1. impact on the educational experiences of disadvantaged children; 2. impact on the experiences of those who influence these children in home, school, and community; 3. impact on the institutions that initially shape and then maintain the role of these "influencers"; and 4. impact on the specific training and retraining programs within those institutions. The creation, operation, and continuing development of a Teacher Corps project requires a constant awareness of the changing relationships among these various objectives, which may serve as both "means" and "ends" for the project.

Teacher Corps is not an independent organization with control over all of the major processes that influence its products. In fact, its "products" or outcomes, will be, to a great extent, under the control of others — the school, the community, and the college. The form of control that the Teacher Corps project does command is an indirect one which uses processes such as facilitation, collaboration, and brokering to accomplish mutual objectives. To do this, the project is held accountable for the maintenance of certain management processes that create opportunities for involvement and participation around issues of mutual self interest. In its funding criteria and legislation, Teacher Corps calls for the inclusion of a clearly developed plan for project management in the initial project application and Teacher Corps has long been an advocate of systematic management techniques, both in training (e.g. teaching modules, competency-based systems) and in project management (e.g. PERT, objectives-based management, discrepancy evaluation, MIS).[5] Systematic management techniques are selected by projects to assure efficient and productive program development, group development, and documentation activities and the project director or management team is expected to choose, adapt, and often invent techniques that provide focus, climate, and control for achieving these ends.[6]

Systematic management theory and practice have emanated from the scientific management movement of Frederick Winslow Taylor which emphasized a concern for task accomplishment (output) and the human relations movement of Elton Mayo which stressed a concern for relationships (people).[7] The recognition of these two concerns has characterized the writings on leadership and management ever since the conflict between the

scientific management and human relations schools of thought became apparent. The language, assumptions, and thought of systematic management also have been influenced by the developments and concepts in general systems theory, cybernetics, information theory, game theory, decision theory, topology, factor analysis, operations research, and systems engineering.[8] The language of systematic management includes such words and phrases as: input, throughput, output, mission, goals, objectives, efficiency, order, control, information systems, feedback loops, impact analysis, flow charts, timelines, networks, needs assessment, products, task analysis, systems analysis, analysis systems, organizational diagnosis, conflict management, force field analysis, freezing and unfreezing. The vocabulary as well as the history and tradition of systematic management appear to be scientific, objective, and neutral. But systematic management (and this includes organizational development) techniques are not neutral and objective; concealed in systematic management techniques and group technologies are ideologies and values which inhibit and work against the achievement of Teacher Corps' generic mission — the introduction and accomplishment of educational change on behalf of low income, special needs, and minority group children. This chapter is an analysis of the values and ideologies inherent in systematic management and the soft technology of organizational development. It will explicate tacit assumptions, identify critical issues relating to management and change, and suggest a different starting place for launching change. A basic assumption of this analysis is that while systematic management may contribute to the achievement of educational change, there are certain fundamental and significant problems that should be noted. An understanding and recognition of these problems suggest that management theory ought to incorporate a different change model if change is not to be merely cosmetic.

Ideologies

Since one of the major purposes of this chapter is the analysis of ideologies hidden in systematic management, a preliminary exploration and discussion of ideology is required. Wax[9] defines ideology as "those socially legitimated ideas, concepts, and symbols used by individuals to provide positive interpretations for the lives and actions open to them within their institutional settings." Individuals want positive self-images; they

want meanings which make a positive sense of what they do and who they are. They are, however, born into a world they never made and their options are largely determined by the institutional frameworks in which they find themselves. They must determine their roles within institutional positions constrained by norms, and this whole social "mechanism," while not in its entirety a product of conscious human design, is nonetheless shaped by the decisions of members of socially more powerful classes and tends to serve their interests. The injustices, the indignities, the out and out brutalities which result can cause depression or even paralysis. Ideologies keep the life-force moving, by disguising or sugar coating depressing acts of life and by defining projects possible within the institutional framework, which may be conceived as innocent or even positive.

Most people seem to agree that one can talk about ideology as referring to some sort of "system" of ideas, beliefs, fundamental commitments, or values about social reality, but here the agreement ends.[10] The interpretations differ according to both the scope or range of the phenomena which are presumably ideological and the function — what ideologies actually do for the people who "have" them. Interpretations of the scope of ideology vary widely. The phenomena under it can be grouped into at least three categories: (1) quite specific rationalizations or justifications of the activities of particular and identifiable occupational groups (e.g. professional ideologies); (2) broader political programs and social movements; and (3) comprehensive worldviews, outlooks, or what some have called symbolic universes. Functionally, ideology has been evaluated historically as a form of false consciousness which distorts one's picture of social reality and serves the interests of the dominant classes in a society. However, it has also been treated as systems of interacting symbols that provide the primary ways for making "otherwise incomprehensible social situations meaningful," that is, as inevitable creations that are essential and function as shared conventions of meaning for making a complex social reality understandable.

These distinctions about the function of ideology are, of course, no more than ideal types, poles between which fall most positions on the question of what ideology is and what it does. Both ideal typical positions do grow from traditions, though, and have their modern proponents. The former, what has been called the "interest theory" of ideology, perceives ideology's primary role as the justification of vested interests of existing or contend-

ing political, economic, or other groups. The latter pole, the tradition of "strain theory," takes as ideology's most important function its role of providing meaning in problematic situations, as giving a useable "definition of the situation," in this way making it possible for individuals and groups to act.

Teacher Corps: An Ideological Dilemma

A major ideological dilemma of Teacher Corps is the commitment on one hand to cooperative, collaborative, and participatory models of governance and decision making and the requirement on the other hand for systematic, efficient, and objective management. The tension of this dilemma probably has been experienced by most Teacher Corps project directors and staffs at one time or another at critical points in their projects. Parity representation, cooperative planning, and collaborative leadership as articulated by Teacher Corps are ideas found in the radical educational reform ideology of the sixties and early seventies which endorses: intense participation in decision making; new means to govern schools more democratically; the elimination of the role distinctions among students, parents, teachers, and administrators; and consensual decision making based on face to face interactions.[11] The pure application of this ideology encourages governance structures and patterns of interpersonal relations that normally would facilitate conflict.

But an ideology which can generate conflict does not seem compatible with the ideology of efficiency. Teacher Corps requires systematic management approaches presumably because systematic management is able to resolve the potentially conflicting norms, values, and behavioral regularities of public schools, universities, and community agencies.[12] How? By eliminating from official business love, hatred, and all purely personal, irrational, and emotional elements. Systematic management is functional then because — in theory — it supplants the inefficient with the efficient, the unpredictable and the unique with the predictable and patterned, subjective quirks and biases with impersonal, rational, and objective procedures, and slow and tedious hit-or-miss methods with smooth precodified and semi-automatic routines.

Teacher Corps attempts to address this ideological dilemma by synthesizing elements of "humanistic democratic collaborative" ideology with elements of "efficient scientific management" ideology into *collaborative systematic management* which

incorporates the hard technology of scientific management and the soft technology of organizational development. But an analysis of collaborative systematic management reveals serious problems that get in the way of accomplishing fundamental educational and organizational change. As we shall see, an ideological synthesis which ignores or mitigates the integrative functions of conflict and which accentuates efficient systematic collaborative modes of management has inherent difficulties and contradictions.

The Mythology of Neutrality

Systematic management procedures are not interest and value free. In discussing the values evident in, and perpetuated through, such supposedly scientific procedures as systems management, Apple[13] notes how systems language performs a political function by convincing others of the sophisticated state of the field of education and by evoking tacit meanings from the general audience that are basically supportive of a quasi-scientific belief system. Order and consensus are extremely important for the proper functioning of systems management procedures; conflict and disorder are antithetical to a smoothly functioning system.

> It should be clear, then, that systems approaches are not essentially neutral, nor are they only performing a "scientific" function. By tending to cause its users and the other publics involved to ignore certain possible fundamental problems with schools as institutions, systems management also acts to generate and channel political sentiments supportive of the existing modes of access to knowledge and power.[14]

Apple argues that systems management rests on a set of hidden belief which, when examined, is often unrealistic and socially and politically conservative. These assumptions are concerned with the tacit advocacy of a view negating the importance of intellectual conflict, a limited perspective on scientific endeavor, an inability to deal with ambiguity, and finally, a separation of moral and technical questions.[15]

Others, like Passmore,[16] have addressed the problem of terminological bias, saying that scientific sounding words like "efficiency" often disguise value judgments, and that seemingly factual statements often imply value judgments or even formu-

lation of social policy. House[17] identifies some underlying values of systems management:

componentiality: reality can be easily separated into neat components

multirelationality: an individual can be fragmented into all the relationships he/she must maintain in society

makeability: problems can always be solved, and

progressivity: it is desirable to maximize the benefits of any action

Apple suggests that systems management procedures actually enable managers to avoid conflicts over basic values by making choices within the limited framework of existing modes of interaction and by precluding questions about the basis of the structure itself. Using scientific terminology this way serves to de-emphasize value conflicts and to portray decisions as factual or reality-based judgments.

The technology and language of systems management approaches shape the minds of those who use them and obscure the fundamental aim of systems management procedures, i.e., effecting and maintaining technical control and certainty. However, the systems management procedures that are effective for developing a rocket are not necessarily effective for helping people to achieve meaning in life and for dealing with the competing political, moral, and intensely personal conceptions of valuable educational activity. Uncertainty, ambiguity, and conflict are the very fabric of life, the very nature of being human. Eliminating them is a contradiction. Unfortunately, the philosophy of gradualism, one of the ideological underpinnings of systematic management, has influenced our belief systems so that we prize order, control, predictability, consensus and planned change over the human dimensions of uncertainty, ambiguity, unpredictability, and conflict-elements which accompany the political, ethical, and moral issues found in any complex educational activity or innovation.

The Ideology of Gradualism

The intellectual roots and tacit values of systematic management reflect the ideology of gradualism which supports the gradualistic evolutionary cooperative approach to change that

characterizes educational innovation. Recently the scientific validity of gradualism has come under question leading to significant implications for educators interested in educational change and reform. Gradualism is a philosophy of change, not an induction from nature. Stephen Jan Gould in his essay "Evolution: Explosion, Not Ascent,"[19] notes that when Darwin adopted gradualism as his firm view of evolutionary change, he argues more from tradition than from observation. Darwin was influenced by: the views of J.B. Summer, the Archbishop of Canterbury who held that discontinuous change is a criterion of supernatural intervention since all natural change must be gradual; and the work of Charles Lyell, who, in his reformulation of geology, postulated a stately world of slow, steady and gradual change without direction. Backed by the prestige of Darwin and Lyell, gradualism triumphed in the 19th century and prevailed until recently among natural and social scientists almost as an exclusive orthodoxy. Gould argues that gradualism is now beginning to unravel in field after field and that the evidence of geology indicates that punctuational change, i.e., sudden, abrupt replacement and rapid flips mark the history of most species.[20] Many other disciplines are now considering alternative models of punctuational change and economists, ecologists, physicists and anthropologists are constructing mathematical models and theories of catastrophic transformation to challenge the conventional wisdom of gradualistic evolution.

Why did gradualism become so popular and exert its hegemony for so long? Gould suggests that the answer must lie partially in nature, for some change is slow and continuous but the utility of gradualism as an ideology must explain much of its influence, for it became liberalism's quintessential dogma against radical change — sudden flips are against the laws of nature.[21] Gould asserts that gradualism's strong ideological components have been more responsible for its previous success than any objective matching with nature:

> As gradualism unravels in many areas, it becomes important to understand what supports it in the first place. Scientists tend to assume that such prevailing assumptions arise inductively from patterns in data, obviously perceived. But nature is maddeningly multifarious, — it speaks ambiguously on any issue so cosmic as the nature of change. Shared assumptions often reflect a cultural and political climate more than they record the constraints of scientific data. Gradu-

alism has complex roots, but its role as a general ideology must not be underrated; it became the standard argument among 19th century liberals trying to preserve the social order against increasing threats (and practices) of revolution.[22]

The gradualistic evolutionary model of change, then, has served vested social interests and currently serves vested interests as a subliminal ideology pervading contemporary educational innovation and reform. As a philosophy of change, it has nourished the consensus model of thought which has profoundly affected American educational tradition and practice.

The Consensus Model of Thought

The consensus model of thought is mirrored in both organizational development and systems management. Jackson Kytle[23] in his critique of the technological ethos of the "change industry" elaborates Israel's[24] two competing conceptual models of change: the conflict model and the consensus model. The point of divergence for the models is inequality. The conflict model treats inequality as the central contradiction causing competition between the classes. The consensus model, in contrast, focuses primarily upon mechanisms allowing structural inequalities to be negotiated, the most important one being commitment to shared moral or political goals. In the conflict model disequilibrium is seen as necessary and desirable, whereas the consensus model assumes that balance and stability are the norm.

Kytle[25] argues that organizational development is predicated on a consensus paradigm. Organizational development theory assumes that conflict is endemic within organizations and that uncontrolled conflict within an organization impedes organizational health. The goal of organizational development is to reduce internal conflict by increasing individual "ownership" (psychological ownership, not material ownership) of organizational goals and processes using the techniques of survey feedback and conflict management. Kytle concludes that organizational development is ideologically loaded in favor of management and institutional/organizational interests; that it tends to support traditional organizational/institutional values while muting dissent along the way; and that most of the long range changes produced by organizational development programs are cosmetic with the basic economic and political structures of the organization remaining untouched.[26]

The intellectual history and tradition of organizational development theory would seem to support Kytle. Braverman[27] observes that organizational development and human relations have been touted as a replacement for Taylorism (Frederick Taylor is regarded as the father of scientific management) but that Taylor introduced his ideas on the segmentation of labor with the same progressive and humanistic language. The avoidance of conflict and the promotion of equilibrium or a state of collaboration constitute the main programmatic orientation of Elton Mayo and Roethlisberger whose research (the Hawthorne Studies) and work in establishing personnel departments and the human relations movement in industry form one of the major theoretical bases of organizational development.[28] According to Coser, their trained incapacity to understand conflicts of interest is evident in all their writings. Coser[29] observes that Kurt Lewin developed a strangely contradictory attitude toward conflict. Initially, he stood for a militant position emphasizing the need to engage resolutely in conflict activity to maintain and insure the existence of the group, but then he moved to the position of avoiding conflicts through social management and group skills.[30]

In his critique of the consensus/conflict dichotomy, Kytle recommends that social psychology attend to the history of its contributions to applied areas and commands the attention of those who wish to understand the consensus psychology of organizational development.

> The theory and practice of organizational development, not to mention other group based technologies, is heavily dependent upon major elements of mainstream social psychology such as field theory, theories of cooperation and competition, interpersonal attraction, bargaining, attribution theory and group dynamics. It is also noteworthy, in this connection, that community organization programs do not draw very much upon mainstream social psychology because the liberal cooperative orientation of the latter is usually irrelevant to the situations of conflict and confrontation encountered in community organizing work. In general, social psychology has not been sufficiently concerned with its application to concrete social situations and seems virtually unaware of how its implicit values of consensus, cooperation, conflict resolution and the like have been ideologically loaded in favor of the dominant entrepreneurial and professional elites in our society.[31]

The consensus model of thought not only undergirds organizational development theory but also systems management approaches. Apple[32] sees the way order and conflict are mirrored in systems management approaches used in education as indicative of a constitutive rule of activity that causes most of us to view order as positive and conflict as negative:

> Order becomes a psychological necessity. This is rather important. As I mentioned before, systems approaches attempt to bring about a technical solution to political and value problems. There is nothing odd about this occurrence. Most advanced industrial societies seem to transform their ethical, political, and aesthetic questions, for instance, into engineering problems. Profound conflict between opposing ideological and moral positions are translated into puzzles to be solved by technical expertise. Now, when questioned about the tendency to eliminate conflict, or redefine it, and search for consensus, proponents of systems management in education could and do, in fact, take the position that they are merely trying to be scientific about their problems . . . The perspective they have of science is notably inaccurate . . . The history of science and the growth of individual disciplines, has *not* proceeded by consensus. In fact, most important progress in these fields has been occasioned by intense conflict, both intellectual and interpersonal, and by conceptual revolution.[33]

The consensus model of thought found in organizational development and systems management theories is deeply embedded in the entire cultural web of education. American educators have been imbued with the cultural illusion that all progress in education evolves inevitably and properly from a consensual integration of confluent tending social circumstances and values ordering the universe as a whole, the social system, and particularly formal education.[34] Reitman suggests that most educators have historically been "collaborationists" in their thinking, and this kind of thinking reinforced by the collective wisdom of HEW and NIE persists into the modern age where it is increasingly likely to fail to help achieve desired and desirable societal and institutional reintegration and equilibrium.[35]

The consensus model of thought still taken for granted by most educators assumes that the social system is a holistic enterprise with all cultural and demographic elements ideally fitting together in a well-integrated fashion. Vested interests that

have legitimated their power control the enterprise and inevitably resist efforts to bring about changes in the core normative structure of that enterprise.[36] If change is unavoidable, it emerges gradually from perceived disjunctions in the structure of a system or from accretion, in the form of modest additions to the status quo — never major replacements — and is grudgingly harmonized with existing cultural patterns. *Cooperation and collaboration* among all well enculturated members, including "loyal" innovators, are the keynotes of change, as are *rational dialogue* and *progressive* modification of system patterns.[37] Change tends to be viewed from a perspective of moderation, rationality, collaboration, avoidance of rebelliousness by proponents of reform, and preservation of whatever existing patterns are possible. Reitman believes that this change ethos is dysfunctional and that the pervasiveness of the consensus model of thought is the fundamental reason that many once-promising educational innovations and reforms have failed to materialize:

> "The failure of practically every important educational reform proposal made in the past seventy-five years . . . can, in the final analysis, be traced to the inability of large numbers of actual or potential reform-minded educators and their allies to appreciate the *necessity* and the *legitimacy* of truly original thought and, attendantly, individual and collective dissent at times on behalf of needed changes in the structure and function of the institution. This type of thought and behavior is *required* wherever a highly significant proposal for change is made, since such proposals are almost invariably strongly resisted by powerful individuals and groups possessing vested interests in preserving the status quo at practically any cost."[38]

According to Mann, many people deny the possibility of any change in education except through the cooperative route, and "that attitude seems to be as much a description of the problem as a valid conclusion. The purpose of public policy remains the regular achievement of public goods — under many circumstances but especially in instances of conflict or disagreement which are after all the most significant environment for public policy."[39] The danger in embracing management technologies is that their language and use can dull our sensitivities to hidden values and ideologies which deny the positive and integrative functions of conflict as an engine of educational change.

The Ethical Use of Conflict

Values and assumptions about human activity in society are important for all levels of educational change theory and practice even though their immediate meaning may not be obvious. A theory of educational change by definition must presuppose at some point in time a theory of alienation, dislocation, and conflict. To focus on the functional aspects of conflict is not to deny that certain functions of conflict are destructive or that they lead to disintegration of organizations and social structures. Such focusing, however, serves to correct a balance of analysis which has been tilted in the other direction. In a series of basic propositions distilled primarily from the theories of Georg Simmel,[40] Lewis Coser has clarified the integrative functions of conflict. His seminal and powerful work has significant implications for management theory and practice and for educational change which can only be summarized here. In clarifying the concept of social conflict, Coser identifies several positive values of conflict:[41]

> Conflict within a group may help to establish unity or to reestablish unity and cohesion where it has been threatened by hostile and antagonistic feelings among members. Whether internal conflict promises to be a means of equilibration of social relations or readjustment of rival claims, or whether it threatens to tear apart depends on the organization's or social structure's tolerance of conflict.
>
> Conflict usually takes place within a common universe of norms and rules and leads to the establishment and extension of such norms and rules. In the course of conflict new rules are continuously created and old rules modified. By bringing about new situations, which are partly or totally undefined by rules and norms, conflict acts as a stimulus for the establishment of new rules and norms.
>
> Conflict brings into the conscious awareness of the contenders and of the community at large norms and rules that were dormant before the particular conflict. By reaffirming dormant norms conflict intensifies participation in social life and decision making.
>
> Conflict makes possible a reassessment of relative power and thus serves as a balancing mechanism which helps to maintain and consolidate social structures and organizations.

Conflict creates associations and coalitions by bringing together otherwise unrelated persons and groups. Coalitions and temporary associations can produce agreement and change out of relationships of competition and further stimulate social participation.

How can these propositions inform our vision and practice? What can be extrapolated from Coser's work which will advance the accomplishment of educational change? The following suggestions for using conflict in managing Teacher Corps projects come to mind:

1. Explicitly incorporate opposing values into evaluation studies of the change project by conducting comparative analyses.[42] Such studies might employ tests of critical competitors[43] and political benefit analyses.

   Just as economic cost benefit analyses added the vital dimension of cost to the analysis of outcomes, political-benefit analysis might help to resolve questions about political benefits and foregone opportunities.[44]

2. Actively search out conflicting value positions to insure an appreciation and understanding of and an open dialogue about the full range of potentially influential and competing values. Good examples of this approach are the adversary procedure[45] and the judicial evaluation approach[46] which adapts and modifies certain concepts from both jury trials and administrative hearings in the field of law.

3. Remind ourselves that the development and implementation of educational innovation and change is inherently a political and moral process as well as a technical process. Every now and then we need to step back and reflect on our work and keep in mind that use of systematic management techniques can obscure the fact that as members of a management team or as project directors we make important ethical decisions about human beings. Moral consciousness raising ought to be a consistent item on our agenda so that we can explicate and deal with the difficult ethical, ideological and social problems that are inherent in a complex change project such as Teacher Corps. This can be accomplished by scheduling "conflict retreats" which offer project staff and constituents the opportunity to assemble at a neutral site to articulate and clearly define conflicts in values, goals, interests, and ideologies. Out of "conflict retreats" moral, ethical, and philosophical agenda which impinge on change can be developed as a framework for organizational and educational reformation.

4. Ethically use conflict and crises to generate and accelerate substantial change.[47] Alinsky's[48] community organization approach which uses a change strategy based on a conflict model offers some concrete and useful ideas which can be incorporated into an educational change effort. The concept of conflict as the engine of educational change has also been well developed by Hottleman.[49]

5. Employ cooperative, competitive demonstration approaches within the same project. There are many ways of teaching reading, for example, which can be implemented through an inservice program. Rather than buy into one system of reading demonstration, a Teacher Corps project may achieve greater payoff for students by funding competing approaches on the condition that a common measure of reading achievement be used as a pre and post test assessment for all approaches. The advocates and adherents of competing approaches would come together to select a common measuring instrument and then would go their separate ways to compete with each other to prove that their way of teaching reading is the best. There would be no restrictions or controls (other than ethical or legal) on any particular approach, and teachers would be free to use whatever resources they could garner to make their approaches work. To fuel competition a prize of one thousand dollars could be awarded to the teacher(s) whose approach proved to be the most effective in improving reading achievement. How can students not win in a situation in which people are competing with each other to do their very best to improve reading?

Conflict is ubiquitous in human life in the sense that flight is ubiquitous in the existence of most birds. It is simply a mode of action, a method of achieving goals in the social context. Its elimination would require the condition that no human beings would ever desire the achievement of incompatible goals, and this in turn would require either the social isolation of all human beings or the physiological transformation of all persons but one into will-less zombies.[50] "The pursuit of change in American schools must take place in the context of a pluralistic society. A plural democracy ultimately grounds its values in the differences among individual members. The clash of values which is so clearly present in site resistance to change is the clash of legitimately differing interests. Many of our most interesting public situations involve such rights-in-conflict. They are intriguing and demanding exactly because they are the context of leadership."[51]

Conclusion

Implicitly, the conflict model of change is as ideological as the consensus model, but it uses different assumptions and values. What this suggests is that a significant part of management as a field must be committed to the responsibility of becoming a critical science. Its primary function is to be emancipatory in that it critically reflects on education's interest in keeping most, if not all, aspects of human behavior in schools under technical control.[52] Such a responsibility is rooted in seeking out and illuminating the ideological and epistemological presuppositions of management thought. It seeks to make educational innovators and managers more self and ideologically aware in dealing with the complexities and subtleties of initiating educational change and in developing more effective ideas about change to incorporate into management theory and practice.

II
Change Casualties: A Case Study in Consensus & Conflict

"Without saying very much about it, we all recognize the fact that the conduct of human business must cause pain among those who carry it on. In any large-scale engineering project such as erecting a building, a bridge, or a dam, it is taken for granted by the engineers that a certain number of people will be crippled and a certain number will die. When a large engineering project is completed without a death, engineers congratulate one another. When a stretch of highway is built, it is built with the firm knowledge of all concerned that some of the workmen will be hurt; beyond that, all know that the highway will soon be stained with the blood of some of its users.

People enter the profession of medicine with the sure knowledge that a certain number of them must catch the diseases of their patients. People enter business schools and go into high-pressure occupations under the known risk of psychosomatic ailments

and various neuroses. Schools are built with the sure knowledge that those who "fail" in them will be psychologically damaged and marked for life."[53]

It was just before April 15 and I had not prepared my tax return, but that was the farthest thought from my mind because I was simply about to be fired from my job, a fate not entirely uncontemplated but nevertheless disturbing both to me and to a significant number of students and a small group of parents in the community. Students and walls wore "PIERCE" signs, many students stayed out of class for three days to protest, and Black Power people outside the school became involved.

Events leading to this climax had begun in Thayer City. I was thirty-six and had just received my Ph.D. in curriculum development and educational leadership. Jobs and money were hard to come by; the depression in education had begun three years before and I was desperately searching for positions which would give me the opportunity to influence education to really meet the needs of kids and also challenge and stretch me enough so that I would continue to grow. Although I was offered several positions, none of them seemed to be what I was looking for. Finally, I was offered a position as the Director of a Career Education Project which had as its ultimate objective curriculum and organizational change in Resistance High School, which reflected in its student population the racial mix of the community—seventy percent white and thirty percent black.

I began my project mission well indoctrinated with several "truths." The year started, and I embarked on my well conceived and collaboratively planned crusade. The project was well funded and I had a staff of three professionals, the best and the brightest among the candidates who had applied for the staff positions. They were selected by a committee representing all the constituencies of the project including the school administration and teaching staff. We were all still young enough to be idealistic, somewhat arrogant, overconfident, overdressed, overdegreed, and undereducated change agents.

Beginner's luck was with us for a while and like most projects we went through a honeymoon period with the school administration and staff. We followed the principles of sound management and organizational development right down the line. We listened and we listened well to teachers who we discovered are like most people, lonely for someone who will listen. We carried out a needs assessment process with the students, teachers, and the community. We met with numerous citizen groups; formed a

project advisory committee consisting of teachers, students, parents, and community representatives; and we developed objectives, MBO task analyses, timelines, and job specifications based on the input from students, teachers, and parents. We had some conflicts along the way but were able to work these through and patted ourselves on the back for our success as mediators and facilitators in bringing diverse vested interests together. Cooperation and collaboration were our key words as we saw a new curriculum based on career education concepts begin to take hold. But despite our apparent success, we began to get the uneasy feeling that new courses, work-study programs, reading materials, curriculum immersion in career education, and new approaches to instruction were only scratching the surface. Something was missing and something was happening to me. I began to see that the project was misdirected and was deflecting the school's and the community's energy and attention away from the consistent but subtle tensions which existed between Blacks and whites. Our collaborative and cooperative planning had been programmed because we had bought into the goals of the project to begin with—we were focusing on career education and not on race relations. Our needs assessment, our planning, our management system, everything had been shaped by the unspoken philosophy of the career education movement. We, in effect, were helping to grease the people wheels of the economy and not paying much attention to the pervasive racism in Resistance High.

I shared my observations with the project staff and after several hours of soul searching we agreed that the project needed to be redirected and arranged to meet with the Superintendent, High School Principal and representatives of the teaching staff. Our observations and recommendations were not well received and we were advised to "get on with the project." After several frustrating and enervating weeks of using all the human relations and change strategies in the book, we decided to make our case with the Project Advisory Committee which included the Superintendent, High School Principal, and one of the teacher representatives we had met with. All Hell broke loose at that meeting. Though few in number, all the Black members of the committee along with three whites began to bring long dormant racial issues out in a way nobody had heard before and by the time the meeting ended, racism was well on its way to becoming the number one educational issue in Thayer City. The next day the newspapers carried the story about our meeting and

stamped racism as the most critical problem confronting Resistance High School and called for cool and calm heads to address the problem. Our project staff designed a plan to bring students and teacher representatives together to begin to work on the problem. As planned, students and teachers were to go off together to a mountain retreat for a weekend. The students were school leaders. "Formal" leaders were student government types and elected class officers. "Informal" leaders were influential blacks and others. Given the circumstances and the encouragement from an influential black student and myself, the weekend turned into an intense racial awareness encounter.

In the students' opinion and the project staff's, the weekend was productive. Blacks and whites became more aware of barriers that stood between them. Those barriers began to lower under the power of mutual openness and the sharing of food and time. Although some of the teachers did not share our optimistic view of the weekend, all the faculty representatives agreed to support racial awareness activities. To cultivate what had begun, Resistance students, project staff, and I planned for the future and held meetings when we returned.

Although frustrated from the start by administrative disapproval and thinly veiled hostility from some key faculty members, we reached some students through informal talks and lectures; but our activities diminished as we became increasingly discouraged by the lack of school support. Several times we were asked to speak with school administrators about the wisdom and necessity of the group, its plans, and my own role in its activities. The tenor of the talks changed from concerned interest to subtle hints that my job was on the line. My standing improved as the group's activities decreased, but this state was not to last for long.

With the approach of Black History Week (a cosmetic curriculum happening which represented the epitome of tokenism), members of the original group decided to meet again and develop a real program of substance for Resistance High. The principal's approval and the faculty council's endorsement were needed for the plan and although neither the principal nor the council flatly refused us, they did inform us that they were not in favor of our activities. Our program went on, but it gained for me even more mileage down the unemployment path. I soon found out that my chances of being fired were approaching nineth-nine forty four/one hundred percent certainty. Word of my situation reached the student body from a few of my student friends.

For three days my future became the focus of most of the school. Students stayed out of class. Black Power people outside the school involved themselves. It became crucial for the school administration to dampen a potentially explosive situation. The school board called meetings and administrators met with Resistance students. The meetings helped to defuse the situation and also resulted in some new policies and plans. The school board developed guidelines to improve the education of blacks. In Resistance, procedures were established to improve communication among faculty, administration, and the student body; to teach Black History; to establish a school system wide multicultural curriculum; to form a Parent-Teacher Council in place of the Faculty Council; and to appoint an ombudsman to deal with student and parent concerns. After things had quieted down, I was told that the school system would not submit a proposal for continuation of the project I was directing. It was summer time, the fiscal year had ended, students and parents were enjoying the lazy warmth and the good things of life which only summer can bring. I left Thayer City quietly without any fuss and eventually found a faculty position at a State College. A few months after my faculty appointment, I encountered one of my former students who told me that life at Resistance High School had changed dramatically. Several months after I had left, the principal announced his impending resignation. He and I were both casualties in the war of change. I like to think I accomplished some good. I don't know how he feels.

FOOTNOTES:

[1]W.L. Smith, "Facing the Next Ten Years," *Journal of Teacher Education*, Summer 1975, Vol. 26, No. 2, p. 151.

[2]*Ibid.*

[3]J.P. Steffenson, "Teacher Corps: A Nervous Decade of Educational Innovation," *Journal of Teacher Education*, Vol. 26, No. 2 (Summer 1975), p. 110-111.

[4]H.K. Spriggs, *Site Specific Orientation Program Information Materials.* Published by Southeastern Recruitment and Technical Resource Center of Teacher Corps, University of Georgia, Athens, Georgia, 1976, p. 54-56.

[5]*Ibid.*, p. 56.

[6]R. Goddu, "Application of Systematic Management Techniques in Teacher Corps Projects," Chapter 3.

[7]P. Hersey and K.H. Blanchard, *Management of Organizational Behavior: Utilizing Human Resources*, 3rd ed. Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice Hall, 1977, p. 91.

[8]N.R. Stewart, et al. *Systematic Counseling*, Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice Hall, 1977, p. 91.

[9]L.J. Waks, "The Ideology of Schooling and Work," *Eye on Education*, Vol. 6, No. 1, 1978, p. 7.

[10]Michael Diamonti, Personal correspondence, 1978. The remaining section of this discussion on ideology has been developed by my colleague Michael Diamonti.

[11]W.A. Firestone, "Ideology and Conflict in Parent Run Free Schools," *Sociology of Education*, Vol. 49, No. 2 (April 1976), p. 169-175.

[12]Michael Diamonti, Personal correspondence, 1978.

[13]M.W. Apple, "The Adequacy of Systems Management Procedures in Education," *Journal of Educational Research*, Vol. 66, No. 1 (September, 1972), p. 14.

[14]*Ibid.*, p. 15.

[15]*Ibid.*, p. 17-18.

[16]J.A. Passmore, "Can the Social Sciences Be Value Free?" In H.S. Broudy, R.H. Ennis, and L.I. Krimerman (Eds). *Philosophy of Educational Research*, New York: John Wiley & Sons, 1973.

[17]E.R. House, "Technology and Evaluation," *Educational Technology*, Vol. 13, No. 11, 1973, p. 20-26.

[18]Apple, *op. cit.*, p. 15-16.

[19]S.J. Gould, "Evolution: Explosion Not Ascent," *New York Times*.

[20]*Ibid.*

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[33]*Ibid.*

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[36]*Ibid.*

[37]*Ibid.*, p. 339.

[38]*Ibid.*, p. 342.

[39]D. Mann, "The Politics of Training Teachers in Schools," *Teachers College Record*, Vol. 77, No. 36 (February, 1977) p. 326.

[40]George Simmel, *Conflict*, trans. Kurt H. Wolff. Glencoe, Illinois: The Free Press, 1955.

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[49]G.D. Hottleman, "Hierarchy and Egalitarianism: The Case for the Study of Organizations in the Education of Teachers: An Organizer's View." In R.G. Corwin and R.A. Edelfelt, *Perspectives on Organizations*. Washington, D.C.: American Association for Colleges for Teacher Education, 1977, p. 58-71.

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[51]D. Mann, "Making Change Happen," *Teachers College Record*, Vol. 77, No. 3 (February, 1977) p. 322.

[52]Apple, *op. cit.*, p. 21.

[53]P.J. Runkel, "The Inevitability of Pain" in Schmuck, Runkel, Arends, and Arends, *The Second Handbook of Organization Development in Schools*, Palo Alto: Mayfield Publishing Co., 1977, p. 217-218.

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6

The Search For Entente: A Model For Collaboration

By

H. W. Meyers

Managing collaboration in the governance of a Teacher Corps project may be described as the process the court jester uses to keep several multi-colored balls in the air as a mist of Mazola oil descends. Legislation and the growing awareness among parents and politicians of the fiscal realities of financing public education have made it incumbent on the designers of educational programs to structure collaborative governance systems that include both the service deliverers and recipients.[1] In the past, parents, children and other community members were seen as clients of an educational system and its staff of professionals. The clients were consulted in varying degrees on the design and goals of educational programs. But the fantasy of their incompetence as planners was adequate rationale for their exclusion from the actual planning and implementation processes.

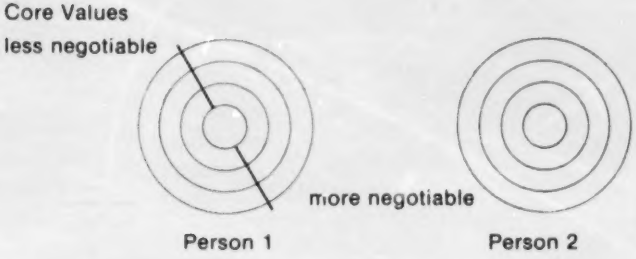
Now it appears that school/university/community collaboration in teacher education and research is a survival issue for both public education and for colleges of teacher education. Collaboration, therefore, now becomes a legitimate area of inquiry; the outcome of such study may illuminate the future for many educators.

A Model for Inquiry:

Ladd[2], building on the writing of Lewin[3], Smith[4], Feinberg[5], and Wayson[6] posited a model that identified certain tensions

which naturally arise between schools and universities when they attempt collaboration. He derived the model from Lewin's approach to personality. Lewin's model of personality was symbolized by a set of concentric circles representing regions of the individual; values, attitudes, habits and ways of conceptualizing reality. As the inner regions of the core personality were approached the individual would be less likely to negotiate its content with another person and tension would result.

FIGURE 1



In generalizing this model of personality to relatively independent social systems, Ladd observed that tensions were derived from the overlapping of interest in areas of "regions" of the respective institutional systems. The areas of collaboration between institutions would be most productive of evolutionary change where the outer regions overlapped with the necessity for the minimum amount of negotiation for the "core values, attitudes, etc."

Six years of observation by the writer suggests that the model had considerable merit in predicting conflict between school, university and community people engaged in collaborative projects. Even when conflict appears to be largely personal, it often seems to stem from situationally determined concerns. For example, criticism of higher education by teacher organizations and parents during recent controversy concerning the control of teacher centers can be largely understood in light of the same tensions Ladd identified more than ten years ago. In the context of this chapter, therefore, the model represents three "acts" of a drama. All three acts are played out simultaneously by the players who are the collaborators in cooperative program design. The acts are independent systems with their own life spaces, but their "outer regions" overlap in the planning and implementation of programs.

Community Participation:

In the natural evolution of cooperative school-university teacher education programs a relatively new circle or system had been added in the design process. Aided, among other events, by a greater public concern for the quality of education and the passage of P.L.94-142, requiring the participation of parents in the structure of individualized plans, the community is a growing presence in cooperative program design.

Definition of relevant community influence is a particularly knotty problem. Writing in 1969, Joyce[7] recognized the importance of broadening the definition of community beyond the elected school board, "especially in the case of large school districts where school boards and other representatives are likely to be quite remote from the local situation. . . ." He makes a similar observation in 1978. Writing in *Involvement: A Study of Shared Governance of Teacher Education*, the problem of definition is described as follows:

> "The most complex problem is the identification (early in the process) of the community subgroups which need to be represented. One cannot simply ask the parents of students in a given school to elect representatives at a PTA meeting. Traditionally, lower-income persons are proportionately disenfranchised by this method, and it is vital to ensure that larger proportions of underfranchised segments of the community are represented.
>
> Knowledge of the community is necessary to determine its subgroups, and identifying disenfranchised subgroups is not easy. Many participants felt consultants should be used in identifying the subgroups to be represented. Almost any individuals who claim to 'know' their own community will be challenged by others in that community, whereas the consultant can operate objectively and use several methods, as appropriate. Integral in the process is the recognition that many important subgroups will not identify themselves voluntarily but must be identified through study. Poor persons, especially, have fewer ways of expressing themselves or coming forth as an interest group than do other segments of the community."[8]

Teacher Corps programs have attempted to facilitate an integrated approach to the cooperative design of teacher education which includes some definition and representation from

the community. Such programs have typically encountered the following problems:

—Difficulty in defining the parameters of community influence.

—Difficulty in identifying the physical boundaries of the community.

—Difficulty in identifying the significant others or community power figures who have the greatest investment in the outcomes of teacher education programs.

—Difficulty in attracting volunteers and sustaining interest in a three-way collaborative program design and implementation process.

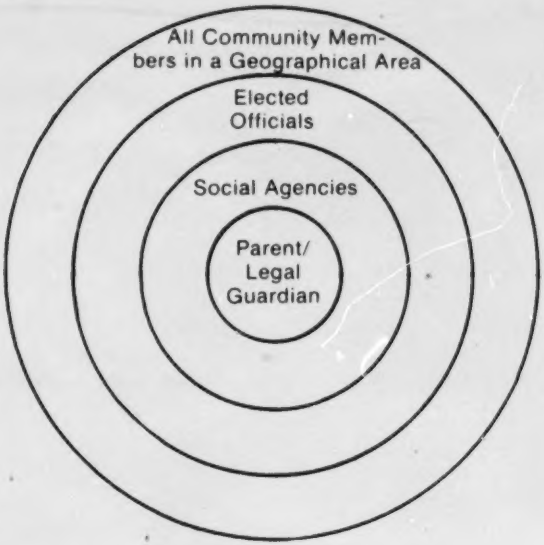
The first three problem areas probably stem from the inability of program planners to perceive the community accurately. The last area may stem from the inability to accurately define and describe community dynamics, values, interests, norms, etc., in a manner similar to the approach Ladd has taken in the cases of schools and universities. For example, it is probable that Teacher Corps programs have attempted to describe the community in isolation from the school. In the design phase, target populations of students are identified. The parents of these children, usually low income, are studied, recruited, and on occasion, paid by the project for their efforts in coordination. Given all of this activity, much of it at considerable expense, project managers are often mystified at the seemingly low level of community participation.

It may be, however, that the assumptions tested during the needs assessment of the community led managers to the wrong conclusions. That is, the very idea of researching community needs apart from the community structure defines the community as a client group rather than as partners in development. It creates a mind set that the community is to be served rather than collaborated with as an equal partner. What may be needed is an approach to defining all three sections, school, university, community in parallel terms. Ladd's model provides the framework upon which such an analysis can be built.

Alternatively, upon defining a target or client student population, the community could be defined by planners as a system which had as its criteria for inclusion direct/indirect relationship with the children who were presumed to be the chief beneficiaries of the program. The circles would be constructed on specific criteria, e.g. degree of responsibility for the child's wel-

fare. (Child is defined as the prime beneficiary of the program being planned.) Figure 2 illustrates such a description built upon the above criteria:

FIGURE 2



Basic or shared goals are one major dimension for further describing social systems. Goals that relate directly and indirectly to the education and welfare of the child (as defined above) would link each group on a common basis. The actions of parents, social agencies, elected officials and other community members that relate to the education and welfare of the child, either positively or negatively, would signal basic goals as criteria for inclusion.

Pitfalls To Be Avoided

In contrast to the schematic description in Figure 2, what follows illustrates some of the common pitfalls in predicting community response to educational programs.

In describing the community it is not uncommon for planners and researchers to confine their observations to factors that

appear to be easily measured. The Urban/Rural Study cited earlier attempts to present the factors associated with *process parity* in decision making between school and community council members. The study measures such factors as frequency of communication, the patterns of communication, leadership roles, previous process training, educational level, vocational status, attendance at meetings, and number of council members. Most of these factors were reduced to arithmetic means and correlative relationships produced. The analysis produced the speculation, for example, that the differences in communication patterns between urban and rural sites may have been accounted for by reason of the rural community members' receiving less group process training and having had less experience in organizations than their urban counterparts[9].

Inferences based on such correlations may be dangerous. A definition of community which circumscribes only a population of parents, e.g. geographic and low income, leads the observer to inferring causes of behavior for that community which will vary with the cultural heritage, political, and economic issues that are salient for that population. One example of how this narrow line of reasoning may go astray is: since the low income community has historically not had access to higher education (and rarely accesses public schools with the same success as does the majority), it is often assumed that its primary goal is to gain such access. Experience in rural communities confirms that limited access exists for low income groups but does not support the contention that access is a goal. For example, career aspirations of rural youth in Vermont (possibly an accurate reflection of community shared goals) do not, as a rule, include higher education as a "raison d'etre," they are seen as irrelevant by the very community which is courted as a collaborator.

Analysis that seeks inductively to describe a community makes possible the construction of a continuum. If, as Ladd posits, a university is chiefly concerned with instruction "for those who are able to take advantage of it" and if the public school strives to service all who come, then the community of parents and legal guardians may be even more circumspect and require that schools and universities define an adequate preparation for the future lives of the community's children as seen through the specific community value system. (See Figure 3.)

The sources of tension are apparent on the continuum and in the model. It can be predicted that along these basic goals none of the parties is prepared to readily compromise.

FIGURE 3

Continuum

EDUCATION FOR. . .

Schools	University	Community
For all	For those who are qualified	For my child

or

As seen in the model

EDUCATION FOR. . .

In the case of the goal of research, highly prized by universities, schools are enlisted in the enterprise only after certain conditions which relate to their own survival and values systems are met. Low income communities, as defined above, have generally not shared an interest in basic research. Experience has shown us that basic research activity often threatens both schools and communities as it is not respectful of the survival goals of schools nor of class and ethnic goals. Research, therefore, is by and large resisted. Successful basic research is justified by the community only in so far as it supports community-shared goals. For example, basic research on reading for low income children may at the same time provide needed skill instruction. If modifications of the negotiated research program are made, to the extent that modifications reduce the direct benefit to children it is predictable that the research will be resisted by parents. Likewise, when research programs are initiated by universities in schools, they will be

supported to the extent that they do not threaten the survival goals of teachers and administrators. These survival goals are ordinarily justified on the basis of preserving the "education for all" central value.

To return to the model, each circle in Figure 3, therefore, would be comprised of another set of concentric circles representing linking values and norms which are weighted in terms of their "negotiability" with other systems. As each specific subsystem was studied, the concentric circles would begin to take shape. When the sub-systems were complete on the criterion of representing the least negotiable to the most negotiable goals, values and norms, the sub-systems could then be superimposed. Areas of overlap would signal areas around which trust would be most readily built and conflict kept at a minimum. More importantly, perhaps, those areas around which programs would encounter increasing resistance would be ranked and visible. A theoretical interactive model has been posited. An example of the effects of its interaction related to the design of a teacher education program that includes a research component has been represented. Two questions remain to be answered: first, by what method could the data be collected and the analysis made; and second, what are the key variables of collaboration which ought to be studied and weighted.

Methodology:

An appropriate mode of inquiry would be a series of parallel qualitative ethnographic studies of each of the collaborating systems. Ray Rist, writing on qualitative orientations has noted:

> Emphasis is placed upon the ability of the researcher to 'take the role of the other,' to grasp the basic underlying assumptions of behavior through understanding the 'definition of the situation' from the view of participants, and upon the need to understand the perceptions and values given to symbols as they are manipulated by man. Qualitative research is predicated upon the assumption that this method of 'inner understanding' enables a comprehension of human behavior in greater depth than is possible from the study of surface behavior, the focus of quantitative methodologies.[10]

These studies would entail simple yet detailed observations of each system, its goal structure, norms, patterns of interaction and membership. A content analysis of the observations would

seek to arrive at three independent descriptions of the collaborators.

Key Variables

In addition to the narrative descriptions, key variables would be determined from the narratives, charted and ranked according to their degree of negotiability as defined by each collaborator. Some typical variables are drawn from Ladd's work which others are the result of our experience in Vermont.

Orientation to:

1) Policy making
2) Role of the written word
3) Daily activities
4) Cooperation
5) Expenditure of funds
6) Research and development
7) Personnel matters
8) Personal commitment to the organization
9) Relative social structure
10) Educational, political and social and economic views.

Charting and ranking would be a result of a second series of observations, using two types of instrumentation. One would be modeled after one of the several time series instruments currently available utilizing the variables uncovered in the ethnography. The other would be a values inventory utilizing the same variables.

Certain caveats are necessary here and may be summarized under "effective data collection" methodology. For example, non-print oriented strategies should be used with groups for whom the use of printed material would produce a bias. Instrumentation is used therefore in the broad sense. The goal is to produce comparable valid data using different strategies. Intercorrelations of variables across groups formed by the collaborating systems would then produce the three sets of concentric circles described in Figure 3.

It is evident that in order for a manager to formulate a complex picture of interrelationships among the collaborators much work needs to be done at the project site. This is particularly true if a research design to test the hypothesis of the interrelationship posited is to be executed with valid instrumentation. For those without the resources to systematize the collection and analysis of data, the model may well become another

way of informally looking at the dynamics of at least three collaborating groups. At its most generalized level it is a way of looking at the whole of a project as a product of its interactive subsystems rather than the sum of its parts.

FOOTNOTES:

[1]See Alexander M. Nicholson, et al, *I.S.T.E.: Report III*, Report of the Inservice Teacher Education Concepts project, Palo Alto: 1976, pp. 33-99.

[2]Edward Ladd, *Sources of Tension in School-University Collaboration*, a monograph, American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education, Washington, D.C.: 1968, 32p.

[3]Kurt Lewin, *Resolving Social Conflicts: Selected Papers on Group Dynamics*, New York: Harper and Brothers, 1948, pp. 20, 24-25.

[4]See E. Brooks Smith et al, eds., *Partnership in Teacher Education*, Washington, D.C.: American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education, 1967, passim.

[4]See E. Brooks Smith et al, eds., *Partnership in Teacher Education*, Washington, D.C.: American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education, 1967, passim.

[5]Harriet Feinberg. *Perspectives on the R & D Center*, unpublished paper, 1966.

[6]W. W. Wayson, *The University's Relation to the Urban School District*, unpublished paper, 1966.

[7]Bruce R. Joyce, *Alternative Models of Elementary Education*, Waltham, MA: Xerox College Publishing, 1969, p. 47.

[8]Bruce R. Joyce, (ed.) *Involvement: A Study of Shared Governance of Teacher Education*, Syracuse: National Dissemination Center, 1978, p. 13.

[9]*Ibid., p. 33.*

[10]Ray C. Rist, "On the relations Among Educational Research Paradigms: From Disdain to Detente," *Anthropology & Education Quarterly*, Volume VIII, Number 2, (May 1977), p. 44

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7

Collaboration In Teacher Education: A Teacher Corps Concept In Search Of Transitive Meaning

By

Robert P. Ho

INTRODUCTION

Marcuse in *One-Dimensional Man* spoke of the need to generate concepts with transitive meaning and posited that a truly critical social theory can only be built with transitive concepts. By a "concept with transitive meaning," I take Marcuse to mean one which, when operationalized, can act upon and thereby reform or reshape that original reality which had generated the concept.

Collaboration in teacher education, a recent approach to teacher education reform, has been regarded as a transitive concept inasmuch as many in the profession have thought that this approach could yield some viable solutions to problems long encountered in the teacher training process. The assumption has been that implicit in this approach is a good possibility of finally bringing to bear on the teacher training process the combined material and people resources of the higher education community, the local school district, the community service organizations, the professional teachers' organization and the state education agency. We further assume that any collaborative decision made among such constituent groups with respect to such key policy issues as resource allocation, training design, evaluation and certification standards, etc., could in fact be operationalized. We also assume that perhaps through some kind of

an interorganizational or interinstitutional collaborative process we might create a new culture or a new social organization for teacher education which shall contain, as integral parts of its anatomy, both the commitment to and capability for the generation, communication and utilization of knowledge.

It is my contention that unless such a commitment and capability are present and actualized within a radically different organizational framework for teacher education, the concept of collaboration in teacher education, in spite of its inherent merits, will continue to remain without transitive meanings. The difficulty of using collaborative strategies in past efforts (e.g., Triple T. projects and COP) and present ones (e.g. Teacher Corps projects) to effect qualitative changes within participating institutions substantiates my contention.

The purpose of this chapter, therefore, is three-fold:

1. To review briefly some of the major constraints which have hampered the effective operationalization of the teacher education collaborative concept. These constraints shall be identified and discussed primarily from the perspective of decision-making.

2. To review some of the contributions of organizational behaviorists, particularly from the perspective of "interinstitutional" decision-making.

3. To offer some tentative concept statements or propositions that may help generate a model which could operationalize the collaboration concept of an interinstitutional setting. I term this the "Survey-Conflict-Feedback-Clarification-Management" model.

The focus, then is decision making. It can be posited that in the nature and quality of the decision-making process lies the real power for change. As Bennis states:

> Social action depends on power just as physical movement depends on energy. Nothing changes in human affairs until new power is generated or until old power is redistributed.[1]

The focus for new power generation or old power redistribution is an interinstitutional setting (e.g., Teacher Corps Project) is how decisions are made or where the real decision points are or who are the decision makers and for what purpose the decisions are made.

*For the purpose of present discussion, no differentiation is made among these terms: interagency, interinstitutional, intergroup, intersystem; they are used interchangeably.

I

Seven major constraints affecting a collaborative approach to teacher education can be identified. For purposes here, they shall be expressed in conceptual terms and discussed in the context of how they affect collaborative decision making. They all represent key units of analysis, if collaboration in teacher education is to be taken seriously. They describe major dimensions of the teacher education collaborative reality which have often been overlooked.

These seven constraints are:

1. Ideology
2. Intra-institutional politics . . . "let's muddle through . . ."
3. Decision situation . . . "there is a time for everything . . .?"
4. Perception
5. Leadership
6. Conflict
7. Groupthink

1. According to Parsons no social system or institution can exist without a specifically expressive pattern of cognitive and moral beliefs about man and society and their relationship to the universe and history. Ideology, then, is very much implicit in an institution's existence. To the extent that ideology may be distorted and in terms of how it is articulated institutionally, it can help a system attain greater integration or can cause its disintegration.[2]

Parsons also described four sources of ideological distortion: (a) social strain, (b) vested interests and prospective gains, (c) bitterness about social change that has already occurred, (d) limited perspective due to social position, and (e) persistence of an outmoded tradition of thought. The typology of distortion offers a useful perspective to look at the issue of whether institutionally we are ready to seek out a new route for teacher education. I believe that we are presently some distance away from that ideological readiness.

2. The "muddling through" intra-institution politics perspective simply states that decision making withing any organization does not rationally select a course of action which represents a radical departure from past policies. Lindblom claimed that radical changes in the direction of an institutional policy are rare.[3] A university, a local school district and the local teacher organization, for example, are not ready to take a rational

position on the need in the profession for a genuine collaborative approach to inservice teacher education. Decision makers within these respective institutions prefer small incremental changes on the basis of past experiences. The incremental change approach involves compromise; decisions made in this mode, therefore, are more tradition bound than innovative.

A recent study of state education agencies by Murphy[4], relying on Cyert/March and Sarason for his theoretical base, arrived at the same conclusion as Lindblom. Murphy's study of how six state education agencies decided to utilize ESEA Title V funding yielded findings to support his hypothesis that intra-institutional decision making is rooted less in calculated, hence rational, choices to meet agreed-upon goals and more in an intra-agency bargaining process. Moreover, Murphy concluded that decision making is frequently a function of a given organizational group or culture. It can be posited, therefore, that inasmuch as a university, a local school district, or a local teachers' organization each respectively represents an unique and distinct culture containing its own set of norms, collaboration or parity as a management requirement of a Teacher Corps project would need to surmount a great number of organizational identity problems.

3. Conceptually, a decision situation is multi-dimensional in terms of time and peace. For purpose of the present discussion, I shall define two situation types (a) the crisis situation and (b) the developmental change situation. Holsti's[5] study of the decision situation characteristics of World War I represents the first type; it has its counterpart in education, I believe, in the post-Sputnick crisis of the late 1950's. No study to my knowledge has been done on the decision situation characteristics of that crisis. Cook[6] did a study of a decision situation in a mid-western public school system which represents the development change situation. The developmental change situation in Cook's study lasted over a period of some ten years; it was characterized by the changing economic base of the community, growing teacher and parent militancy on both educational policy and salary negotiation issues and the ideology of an outmoded tradition by the school superintendent. With this internal change process came the additional demands for innovation which were accompanied by ESEA monies.

An analysis of findings from these studies seems to indicate that the decision situation as a chronoholistic conception does

affect the nature and the quality of the decision(s) made particularly in terms of the following:

1. The nature of the situation seems to dictate when and how coalitions are formed.
2. The decision makers are more concerned with the immediate than long-range objectives-- especially in situations characterized as "crisis."
3. The decision makers' perception of the possible and desirable options or alternatives seem to narrow at every decision point encountered.
4. Whenever there is a decision point, decision makers in groups, coalitions or individually would engage in some form of information filtering.
5. The decision makers, particularly working in a coalition, have a greater inclination for a high degree of group cohesiveness.

A decision situation is a constraint affecting collaboration in the Teacher Corps projects framework because I have known no institution or organization going into a joint enterprise or a collaborative arrangement without a hidden agenda. The growing militancy of the teachers' organization as a political and economic force in education, the public's demand for accountability, the demand of the disadvantaged for the "Right to Read," the cry for community control, the entry into the teaching profession of a very different breed of people and higher education's ambivalence in terms of its institutional purposes are all salient characteristics of the situation. Taken together they represent, indeed, a constraint that would be difficult to deal with.

4. Collaboration in an inter-institutional setting like a Teacher Corps project can be easily affected by how groups within that decision framework see each other. In their study on selective perception, Dearborn and Simon[7] showed that a subject perceives in a complex stimulus what he wants to perceive. Moreover, they showed that the subjectivity of a given selective perception increases in proportion to the complexity or ambiguity of the issue. Their findings have found their counterparts in the ways political scientists have conceptualized perception. Work in this area has been done on foreign policy decision making. Snyder posited the phenomenological theory that what is real exists only through the senses. Human senses in the realm

of politics are affected by such factors as ideology, political socialization, institutionalized values, role expection, and information variable data problems.

5. The collaborative approach as a strategy for teacher education reform, because it lacks a clearly articulated definition, requires a strong leadership role. During the early years of Teacher Corps, the contrary has been the case. The type of leadership observed in those years can be characterized as non-directive and non-evaluative. The type of leadership needed for collaboration to work therefore, is difficult to operationalize in a situation which is highly ideological, divisive, embryonic and poorly articulated.

Political scientists have taken the position that the role of leadership should best be conceptualized in the context of decision situations.[8] A leader in a highly volatile, unstable or transitional situation needs to display behaviors quite different than those observed in some of the Teacher Corps project management settings. They are dominant, demanding, directive and evaluative. But such behaviors are only viable if the group has clearly articulated its goals and objectives. I submit that we have not done that in the case of Teacher Corps project management from the perspective of relating goals/objectives in terms of their clarity and specificity to effective leadership styles. The issue is one of "goodness of fit" between clarity of project goals and the leadership style needed for its attainment.

6. Conflict as a constraint in an inter-institutional setting for decision making is unusual. Collaboration in a Teacher Corps project setting, however, has to deal with value or ideological conflict. This type of conflict is most evident in community-decision organizations (e.g., Model City programs and anti-poverty agencies). It has been evident also in the deliberation process of state professional standards commissions (e.g., California and Maine). Conflict of this type often finds expression in (a) uncertainty of group goals, (b) value positions on a given issue so discrepant that no effective policy decision can be made and (c) frequent use of sanction or threat to achieve consensus. (In the case of the latter, conflict can also express itself in the more gracious form of caucus.)

Literature on organizational behavior provides basically only two group processes to cope with value or ideological conflicts: the *analytic* which assumes a conflict can be resolved rationally and the *bargaining* which assumes that through a political process of "give-and-take" a compromise can be reached.[9] I

contend that inter-institutional ideological or value conflicts cannot be resolved by either of these two techniques.

7. The last constraint has been conceptualized by Janis[10] at the junction of three disciplines: political science, social psychology and history. His pioneering study made a significant contribution to our understanding of the limitations of collaboration or parity in decision-making as a strategy to teacher education reform. By definition it presupposes an inter-institutional enviroment or an inter-face for it to happen effectively. Janis' case-study analysis of such major foreign policy decision fiascos as the Bay of Pigs under the Kennedy Administration and the escalation of the Vietnam War under the Johnson Administration led him to formulate the following "groupthink" propositions:

1. A high degree of group cohesiveness would cause a high frequency of groupthink systems which in turn would cause a high frequency of defects in decision making;
2. Group cohesiveness is a direct function of the group's physical and ideological isolation and the necessary promotional leadership or policy making styles contained therein;
3. Self-esteem needs of members of such a cohesive group (particularly when it is operating in highly unstable decision situations under stress) would cause concurrence seeking at the expense of critical thinking.

The groupthink model, tentative though it may be in the eyes of the positive empiricists, does offer us a refreshing perspective to look at the limitations of the Teacher Corps project setting wherein no clear goals have been identified and wherein "hidden agendas" abound. Moreover, conflicting value positions or ideological differences may not have any countering influence on groupthink. It can be posited that a group's stereotypic view of the insolubility of the problem or its collective efforts at rationalization are groupthink symptoms.

II

In the field of organizational behavior, work has been done which may help us take a more positive view of collaboration in teacher education. Inter-organizational decision making is a

fairly new focus of attention for the field. Most work done has been at the stage of conceptualization or descriptive analysis of certain interphase situations; the latter involves, for example, government/business decision situations or different unitary community decision organizations, (e.g., urban renewal programs working with local school boards).

For the purpose of analysis, it would be more useful to look at only those perspectives which may have direct bearing on collaborative decision making in the setting of a Teacher Corps project. These perspectives include:

1. Organization-Set Model of Interorganizational Relations;
2. Role Sets of Boundary Personnel Working in Interorganizational Settings;
3. Identity Conflict as it may affect Interorganizational Decision Making.

1. Evan's[12] study, which resulted in the organization set model, took for its departure point the concepts in role theory developed by Merton.[13] As his unit of analysis, Evan chose an organization or a "class of organizations" and looked at the pattern of its interaction with other organizations in its environment. Out of this came Evan's interorganizational system with three key components: (a) focal organization, (b) input organization and (c) output organization.

Three dimensions of Evan's model are critical: the nature of input, the nature of output and interaction configurations. For purposes of the present discussion, let us focus on only one key interaction configuration; namely, that of "all channel network" wherein all organizations of a set (e.g., the "Teacher Corps family") interact with each other and in turn interact with the focal organization.

Evan's model represents a useful perspective from which to look at collaborative management of Teacher Corps projects. The following root questions can and should be asked:

1. What is, or will be, or should be the "focal organization" in a Teacher Corps project collaborative (defined here as an organization-set)? What determines it as focal?
2. In an "all channel network" interaction configuration, needed for an effective operationalization of the collaborative decision-making model, is a focal organization necessary? Would it not be self-defeating?

3. In the case of the Teacher Corps project setting, should not we have shifting or rotating focal organizations on a market demand basis? Why should higher education be always in the focal position?
4. Accepting the focal organization as a given in the collaborative decision-making mode, how manipulative can it be in terms of the nature of input and output?
5. The openness of the "all channel network" interaction pattern can affect the quality of the system's output. If so, how can this openness be assured in the Teacher Corps collaborative network?
6. How would the focal organization (higher education, the teachers organization, or the local school boards) derive its mandate?
7. What forces outside this interorganizational set or environment can be brought to bear, and how, on the interaction pattern within the Teacher Corps collaborative environment?
8. Lastly, could we define the "all channel network" interaction process as essentially one of political socialization? And as such, it might be posited, that this interactive process can only be influenced from the outside; hence, question #7.

2. Equally important, is Evan's other proposition that roles of personnel serving on the boundary of the focal organization mediate and, thereby, affect the quality of the environmental interactions which take place between the focal organization and the input/output organizations. I would like to take this proposition a step further and suggest that in the case of a Teacher Corps project the boundary personnel of *all* organizations involved affect the quality of the interactions.

The role-sets of a boundary personnel model offer a particularly useful conceptual framework for a much needed critical analysis of collaboration as a Teacher Corps project management mode from the perspective of personnel utilization.* Such an analysis could be undertaken along several dimensions: (a) the number of personnel involved on the boundary; (b) the quality of these individuals as well as the nature of the positions

*See Appendix A: Survey Instrument designed to determine roles of boundary personnel as perceived by self and others in teacher education as an interstitutional system.

they hold in their parent institutions; (c) the attitudes they hold with respect to their boundary roles; proactive vs. reactive; and (d) their normative-reference-group orientations, i.e., are they oriented more to the focal organization or do they have a normative-reference-group orientation?

My experience working with several EPDA funded Staff Development Cooperatives, a variant of the Teacher Corps model, indicates that the role sets of boundary personnel in that situation critically influenced the growth quality of the programs. The concept of the cooperative degenerated by the end of the first year for the simple reason that the "boundary personnel" involved just did not want to remain on the boundary; no institution of higher education held any intrinsic values for such a role. The ambiguous status of the so-called clinical professor in teacher education is another case in point.

Goddu[14] in 1974 suggested that boundary roles and activities affect Teacher Corps project management structure. More importantly, he pointed out other pressures or environmental attributes which shape and reshape the behaviors of the boundary person.

> Traditionally, boundary roles have been joint appointments, director of field services or student teaching, consortia for staff development. All of these boundary roles come out of a clearly described territoriality and domain which the boundary role or condition legitimizes. Under pressure of time or intense crisis or career, the resolution of the inherent conflict of the boundary role or activity is in the direction of the most powerful and secure base, i.e., where the money is, the legal responsibility is, the status is. Ferment and momentum generated by such boundary roles is thus temporary, transient, and often inefficient in terms of organization growth and well-being. Rarely does the boundary role holder have the energy, skill, support or commitment to move the crisis from a power solution to a rational program.

3. The study done by Walton[15] on interorganizational decision making involved case studies of overseas government agencies such as AID, USIS, Peace Corps and the various special purpose teams attached to the Embassy, e.g., Agriculture, Treasury, Commerce, Labor and Intelligence groups. The focus of the study was on identity conflict as it affects interorganizational decision making. Walton offered the following propositions:

a. Problem solving interferes with bargaining;
b. Bargaining interferes with problem solving;
c. Identity conflict interferes with problem solving, whereas identity reinforcement facilitates problem solving;
d. Problem solving promotes identity reinforcement and diminishes identity conflict;
e. Identity conflict and reinforcement both have varied and mixed affects on bargaining;
f. Bargaining promotes identity competition and diminishes identity reinforcement.

Analysis of Walton's findings which generated the above propositions yields the following generalizations with respect to the identity conflict issue in the collaborative management setting of a Teacher Corps project:

a. Collective identity of a Teacher Corps project collaborative decision or decision making process is difficult to attain; its importance, however, cannot be underestimated.
b. The identity conflict issue is very much a concern of boundary personnel; they are more vulnerable to it.
c. Real collaboration might take place in an appropriate and clear-cut setting *if* the preferred identities of the participating institutions can be made more compatible.
d. Collaboration might be actualized *if* in the Teacher Corps project collaborative setting there is more problem solving commitment as well as behaviors and less those of the bargaining nature.

These perspectives generated from some recent work done on interorganizational decision-making open up a number of helpful avenues to look with more optimism at management by collaboration in the Teacher Corps project setting. For example, I believe that collaboration is possible *if*[16]

a. there is leadership with an appropriate and clear-cut mandate so that the developmental process of a management system for collaboration in a Teacher Corps project could be carefully modulated between voluntarism and coercion;
b. the decision making situation or context at times

has to be more unitary or even federative than simply coalitional;

c. the negotiation process leading to the formation of a collaborative should and can maintain high visibility for such issues as long-range goals, quality of output, larger social purposes, etc.;

d. there is a high degree of inclusiveness of involvement within the participating institutions, i.e., a high degree of centrality of boundary personnel with their parent organizations, e.g., the team leader on school site or program development specialist on campus.

III

Having reviewed the constraints to collaboration or parity in decision-making, I would like to suggest some tentative steps toward designing a model for collaboration which may be useful for the management of a Teacher Corps project. It is not intended to be a comprehensive model, for it focuses on two issues only: conflict and ideology. In other words, effective operationalization of collaboration in managing a Teacher Corps project management setting is dependent on the extent to which these two basic issues are confronted and managed. My contention is that a Teacher Corps project setting has a high ideological content and, therefore, the nature of the conflicts arising out of the collaboration process cannot be resolved productively. The primary focus of the model — SURVEY-CONFLICT-FEEDBACK-CLARIFICATION-MANAGEMENT — is to maximize the management of conflict.

These tentative steps are in the way of formulating some major hypotheses for which the model when operationalized must make the necessary provisions:

1. THE TEACHER CORPS PROJECT (IHE, LEA, COMMUNITY AND STAFF) AS AN INTEGRAL GROUP GAINS A HIGH DEGREE OF INTEGRATION *IF* IDEOLOGICAL OR VALUE POSITIONS CONTAINED THEREIN ARE NOT DISTORTED.
2. TO AVOID DISTORTION OF IDEOLOGY, THIS PROJECT GROUP SHOULD — FROM THE VERY INCEPTION OF ITS DEVELOPMENTAL PROCESS — OPENLY SURFACE AND CLARIFY ALL CONFLICTING IDEOLOGIES OR VALUE POSITIONS.

3. THE PROJECT GROUP CAN ATTAIN A HIGH DEGREE OF INTEGRATION IF THE PROJECT GROUP SEEKS CONVERGENCE OF VALUE POSITIONS IN THE NATURE OF THE TASK: THE GREATER THE GROUP BECOMES INTEGRATED, THE MORE VISIBLE A NEW GROUP CULTURE WILL EMERGE CONTAINING NEW NORMS.
4. THE NATURE OF THE TASK AS A DETERMINANT OF THE PROJECT GROUP INTEGRATION IS A JOINT FUNCTION OF THE LEADERSHIP ROLE AND THE GROUP'S PROVISIONS FOR AND THE QUALITY OF OUTSIDE INTERVENTION.
5. THE OPTIMAL LEADERSHIP ROLE OR STYLE FROM STRONG ADVOCACY TO A STRONG INTEGRATIVE OR NON-EVALUATIVE ONE IS A FUNCTION OF DECISION SITUATION OR CONTEXT.
6. LEADERSHIP ROLE, DECISION SITUATIONS, TASK NATURE, VALUE POSITIONS, ETC., ARE ALL KEY INGREDIENTS OF A POLITICAL SOCIALIZATION PROCESS WHICH IS A MAJOR DIMENSION IN THE COLLABORATION PROCESS.
7. THE GREATER THE NUMBER OF GROUP THINK SYMPTOMS PRESENT IN THE COLLABORATIVE PROCESS, THE MORE MONOLITHIC THE GROUP SOCIALIZATION PROCESS.
8. THE OPTIMAL LEVEL OF GROUP COHESIVENESS (WHICH IS *NOT* GROUP INTEGRATION) IS DETERMINED BY WHETHER OR NOT THERE IS A COUNTERFLOW IN THE SOCIALIZATION PROCESS: OR
9. THE MOST OPTIMAL LEVEL OF GROUP COHESIVENESS IS DETERMINED BY THE KIND OF COUNTER GROUPTHINK PROCEDURES BUILT INTO THE COLLABORATIVE PROCESS.
10. THE QUALITY OF THE COUNTER GROUPTHINK PROCEDURES IS A FUNCTION OF THE SELF-ESTEEM NEEDS OF THE INDIVIDUALS PARTICIPATING IN THE PROJECT COLLABORATIVE EFFORTS.

FOOTNOTES:

[1]W. G. Bennis, *Organizational Development: its Nature, Origins and Prospects*, New York: Addison-Wesley, 1969, p. 79.

[2]Cited in the *Encyclopedia of the Social Sciences*, New York: MacMillan, 1968.

[3]C. E. Lindblom "The Science of Muddling Through," *Public Administration Review*, XIX, 1959, pp. 79-88.

[4]J. T. Murphy, "ESEA Title V: Impact of Discretionary Funds on State Education Agencies," *Harvard Educational Review*, Vol. 43, #3, August, 1973, pp. 362-385.

[5]D. R. Holsti, "The 1914 Case," *American Political Science Review, LIX, (1965).*

[6]W. J. Cook, *Proposal Development as an Instrument of Change: a Project Report*, Unpublished Ph.D. Thesis, Northwestern University, 1971.

[7]D. C. Dearborn and H. A. Simon, "Selective Perception" *Organizational Decision Making*, M. Alexis and C. Wilson (ed), New Jersey: Prentice Hall, 1967.

[8]R. C. Snyder and G. D. Paige, "United States Decision to Resist Aggression in Korea . . .," *International Politics and Foreign Policy*, Rosenau (Ed.) pp. 193-208.

[9]J. March and H. Simon, *Organization*, New York: John Wiley and Sons, 1958.

[10]L. Janis, *Victims of Groupthink: A Psychological Study of Foreign Policy Decisions and Fiascoes*, Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1972.

[11]L. Janis, op. cit, pp. 184-206.
Janis described the following symptoms, all of which ran through the four major case studies he undertook; these studies were of the Bay of Pigs Invasion, the decision to move into North Korea in 1950, the Pearl Harbor fiasco and the escalation of the Vietnam War. (1) Excessive optimism or an illusion of invulnerability in the group; (2) Collective effort to rationalize; (3) Unquestioned belief in the group's inherent morality; (4) Stereotyped view of the outside world; (5) Direct pressure on member who takes strong counter position; (6) Self-censorship of deviations; (7) Shared illusion of unanimity or "togetherness"; (8) Emergence of self-appointed mind-guards.

[12]W. M. Evan, "Organization-Set Model of Interorganization Decision Making," in M. Tuite, R. Chisholm and M. Radner (Ed.) *Interorganizational Decision Making: A Multi-disciplinary Approach*, Chicago: Aldine Publishing Company, 1972, pp. 177-200.

[13]*Ibid.*

[14]Roland Goddu, "Boundary Roles in Education Reform," NEPTE Working paper, 1974.

[15]R. E. Walton, "Interorganizational Decision Making and Identity Conflict," in Tuite, Chisholm and Radner, *op cit*, pp. 94-111.

[16]L. Warren, "Concerting of Decision as a Variable of Organizational Interaction," in Tuite, Chisholm and Radner, *op cit*, pp. 20-32

APPENDIX A

A Survey Instrument Designed To Determine Roles Of Boundary Personnel As Perceived By Self And Others In Teacher Education As An Inter-Institutional System

Introduction

The Likert-type items are worded in the third person; they are to be administered to line and staff people from organizations or

agencies in the six New England states who are involved either directly or indirectly in some kind of teacher training activities.

They are asked to respond to the items on a 10-point scale from *"Strongly Agree"* to *"Strongly Disagree"* for *both* SELF and OTHER.

The items have been developed to cover such areas as "personal agenda," "power and authority," "disagree of centrality of office," "sense of personal effectiveness," "job satisfaction," etc.

. . . . . .

1. It is to his professional advantage to have taken this job.
2. It is desirable for him to remain in this position for at least five years; he usually leaves after the job is done.
3. He likes to be in this position because he can get a lot done
4. He has a high frequency of interaction with individuals of like or greater professional training and experience.
5. What he is doing now is in fact quite similar to what he did at his last job.
6. In the future, he would like to secure a position where he can devote considerably more time to activities of real interest to him.
7. This position represents an important function of the organization to which he belongs.
8. He is ready to undertake the activities required by this position even if they were not vital to the overall mission of his organization.
9. This position is usually the "entry" point for a person interested in joining the organization.
10. He seems to get the greatest job satisfaction in this position.
11. He likes the position because it gives him an opportunity to come into daily contact with people of like values and interests.
12. Successful performance in this position would be a significant aid to his long term professional goals.
13. This position does not seem to have any direct bearing on his professional advancement.
14. It is frustrating in this position because he has had little formal professional training for the job.

15. For his next job, he would not mind having a position involving similar activities.
16. He could not really accomplish anything in this position which is most important to him in terms of his professional interest.
17. He does not seem to be very effective in this position because he has the least to say in shaping or controlling its environment.
18. He sought this position because he felt that it would give him a chance to bring about desirable changes in this field of professional interest.
19. This position definitely has helped him accomplish many things he has wanted to do for a long time.
20. For him to get into this organization this position is the only one for which he seems to be qualified.
21. This position has no direct relationship to any of his professional goals or commitments.
22. Sometimes he gives the impression that he really should not have made the move (into the present position).
23. Most of his time is spent in clarifying his organization's positions (or purpose) to others.
24. The mission and goals of his parent organization do seem to provide him with the greatest influence *vis a vis* other organizations.
25. He seldom spends any time making contribution to the shaping or reshaping of his parent organization's overall goals and objectives.
26. He often feels that he does not represent a clearly identifiable client group or constituency.
27. The major requirement of his position is to keep his parent organization and others happy.
28. His position requires that he does his best to avoid conflict and controversy in the field.
29. The effectiveness of his position is often determined by the extent to which he can adapt himself to the needs of other organizations.
30. The position he holds has as its primary function the creation of changes that would benefit his parent organization *only*.

31. He sees as his major job responsibility the molding of his parent organization's posture to accommodate to the changing nature of its external environment.

32. He seems to have few or no significant duties in his parent organization which do not require him to interact directly with other organizations.

33. Most of the significant policy decisions in his parent organizations are often made on the basis of the data generated by him in his position.

34. Decisions affecting his role are frequently made by his parent organization without prior consultation with him.

35. His role in the policy-making process within his parent organization is predominantly centered in the provision of information.

36. He affects policy decisions in his parent organization through a "feedback" process as he carries out or executes other decisions made earlier.

37. His influence on the policy making process in his parent organization is primarily dependent on the nature of the information he has generated through his position *and* the way it is presented.

38. He frequently sees his major duty as that of helping his parent organization *understand* the nature of its *significant* other organizations — particularly in terms of their missions and goals.

39. Other organizations' perception or understanding of his parent organization is shaped to a large extent by how his role is perceived.

40. Usually the line officers of his parent organization do not rely on him for any information concerning the intent of other organizations.

41. In his position he is usually the first in his parent organization to become aware of new information from, or concerning, other organizations.

42. He seems to be the last one in his parent organization to be informed of any major changes in policies.

43. His behaviors often indicate that in his position he finds it easier to adapt to the external environment than to the internal environment of his parent organization.

44. He seems to have a great deal of influence on the budget-making process within his parent organization — particularly those items in the budget which may enhance the effectiveness of his role.

45. More often than not his parent organization would support the judgements he might make on the basis of his interaction with other organizations — judgements which require policy changes.

46. The effectiveness of his role is often compromised by the fact that he often has to rely on the resources and commitments of other organizations.

48. His position is usually funded with "soft" monies.

49. A great deal of his time is devoted to proposal writing in search of funds needed to sustain his activities.

50. He usually received more than adequate resources from his parent organization toward the accomplishment of his tasks.

51. Promotion in his case usually means transfer out of his present role.

52. The position has little or no direct involvement with the budget process of his parent organization.

53. There are times when his ideas or recommendations are heeded by other organizations in their budget making process.

54. He seems to enjoy his present role because of its marginal nature in terms of accountability.

55. His day-to-day activities are generally designed to support the *primary* purposes or functions of his parent organization.

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8

Organizing Effective Networks

By

Robert Henderson

Introduction

The chief aim of the Teacher Corps is to facilitate collaboration among public schools and universities to improve educational opportunities for low income students. The focus of this collaboration is the use of Teacher Corps/university/school resources to provide inservice training to teachers. Throughout its history Teacher Corps has sought continually to expand the circle of collaboration, on the project level, to include all groups who played a significant role in the education of low income students. Consequently, since its inception in 1965, numerous program amendments and legislative changes have been made to systematically involve parents, community residents, school principals, deans of education and others in the change programs of Teacher Corps projects. Teacher Corps invested heavily in collaboration among these groups in the hope that the energy of their combined efforts would increase the impact of the projects on the educational opportunities available in target schools. In effect, Teacher Corps was attempting to establish a series of networks, on the school level, which would continue to function after the cessation of federal funds. In terms of collaboration, Teacher Corps was attempting to develop a functional system of mutually beneficial relationships working toward the shared objective of improved educational opportunities.

Ironically, it was not until 1974 that Teacher Corps acted to create a system for collaboration among project directors and their projects, the Teacher Corps networks. The aim of the networks was to facilitate information sharing and problem

solving among projects to aid their development and effectiveness. The networks were governed by the project directors and were provided with funds and a staff to aid the administration of their affairs and the execution of their decisions.

Prior to the creation of networks, no formal channels for sharing and collaboration among project directors existed. The irony of this circumstance was the large number of project directors who had developed skills resulting from previous Teacher Corps experience, and the equally large number of directors with no experience who were in need of those skills. Networks not only provided a vehicle for new people to exploit the experience of veterans, they also served as a means to achieve outcomes difficult for any director to achieve individually.

Since their creation, networks have produced numerous products through the organized collaboration of project directors. Alternative training designs, extensive documentation of effective models and practices, and a wide range of project, role groups, and director oriented services have resulted from these combined efforts. However, the productive and efficient collaboration which now characterizes most networks was only achieved after a long period of growth (sometimes painful) and consolidation within each network. The active sense of ownership, responsibility, and commitment to networking, now fairly common among directors, was slow to develop.

This chapter will examine the development of networks in Teacher Corps drawing on the experience of the New England network and others, and cite learnings about the organization and management of effective networks.

Purpose and Function of a Network

The Teacher Corps networks comprise what Sarason calls a "human resource network." It is an association of people with similar concerns and responsibilities who regard themselves and their projects as mutual resources for positive exploitation. The network seeks to maximize the degree of functional benefit achieved by each network member; to aid members in effecting the synergetic potential of network collaboration.

The network brings together people who have commonality of purpose and diversity of skills, perspectives, and experience levels. This balance of unity and diversity is the basis of what Cohen and Lorentz call the "dynamic equilibrium of Networking." On one hand, the network serves to help its members

transcend the constraints of daily operation of their projects. The diversity of perspectives and experience helps them to see larger issues and concerns and address a wide range of issues more effectively. On the other hand, the efforts of the Network are meaningless unless they can be translated into action steps which aid the day to day operation of the projects.

The greater the diversity of experience and perspective the more effective a Network can become. For this reason, one primary function of the Network is to maintain an open system stance; to solicit input and involvement from a wide range of others, (i.e., project members, teachers, community residents, deans, consultants, literature and so on). This openness not only increases the degree of needs responsiveness and knowledge base of Network activities, it also helps maintain a functional orientation in the thinking of the networkers. This orientation, in turn, helps to insure the selection and design of activities which will have a positive measurable impact on the daily operation of projects.

Obstacles To Network Development

The primary obstacles to the development of networks centered on the questions: 1) who benefits — will the network be responsive and accountable to the needs of projects and directors?; 2) what are the costs — will involvement in the network require excessive amounts of time?; 3) can the benefits outweigh the costs — will the products of network involvement exceed the costs of involvement?

Although network collaboration makes immediate theoretical sense, project directors, their staffs, and their constituents (teachers, parents, and school administrators) each had operational agendas they were not eager to disrupt. When networks were established, the initial reaction of these groups ranged from the accusation that they represented a meaningless Washington "lay-on" to simple indifference. Very few showed excitement about the potential of networks to produce needed support services. Consequently, finding ways to demonstrate the reciprocal benefits of network involvement, develop trust among the participants, and facilitate the assumption of responsibility among the members was the first major test of the networks. Also, the networks did not have a clearly delineated mandate or goals statement. In other words, the first question: "What is the network and what is it supposed to do?", had no ready answer.

The concomitant effect of the time pressures directors faced at their projects, the absence of a specific mandate, and the fact that the network and its membership had been created by a powerful external force slowed the development of networks. First, Teacher Corps project directors were obligated to participate in the networks but did not immediately see the potential benefits of their participation. Second, there was active questioning among directors of whether the network's resources would be put to purposes they determined or purposes dictated to them by Washington. Third, network executive secretaries, the chief administrators of networks (selected and directed by network boards of directors) were initially suspected of serving two masters, the networks and Washington. Some directors suspected that networks would be used, by Washington, to perform duties not in the projects' interest. Although those "duties" were never specifically defined, the suspicion alone created an obstacle to network development which had to be overcome. Fourth, some project directors saw networks only as a means to acquire resources for their projects and were not disposed to reciprocate by contributing their time, ideas, skills or experience.

These problems were primarily attributable to newness and the absence of input from project directors in the development of the networks. Project directors had no formal channels of communication or mutual assistance prior to the creation of networks. And, although there was a widely recognized need for a vehicle to facilitate collaboration and sharing among projects, the sudden appearance of networks was generally greeted with suspicion.

The New England Network was no exception. The early meetings of the board of directors were dominated by discussion of who the network belonged to, its purpose and capacity for service, defining the functions and accountability of the executive secretary, and developing an acceptable governance structure. During that period there were three major concerns among directors. First, that the network would only be used for purposes determined by the directors. Directors were concerned that the resources of the network might be exploited by Teacher Corps/Washington to execute its agendas and would consequently lose its value to the projects it was supposed to serve. Second, that the executive secretary serve and be accountable only to the board of directors. Directors were suspicious that executive secretaries would be used to feed back information on the problems of specific projects, and that they would be asked to perform

services not specifically related to network business. Third, that there was parity among the directors in decision making, access to resources, and access to services. And fourth, that the time directors spent away from their projects be productive of benefits for those projects.

Also, because of the newness of the network, integrating its support services into the projects' normal operations was a priority concern. If the network's services were offered at the expense of local project efficiency, the benefits realized from those services would be at least partially diminished by the disruption of their offering.

Early Network Development Strategies

The primary development concern in networking is facilitating the growth of trust and the assumption of responsibility among the members, so that the network can become productive and mutually beneficial. The initial steps taken by the New England network included: 1) designing a governance structure which defined the composition of the board of directors, the authority of the board and its individual members, and a process for decision-making; 2) defining the scope of work, authority, and accountability of the executive secretary; and 3) developing a process for the initial assessment of project needs to facilitate the design of programs and services.

In designing the governance structure and developing programs and services the issue of concern is defining the networks real constituency. Designing an equitable governance structure is a fairly simple and straightforward matter. However, decision-making and program design require the consideration of and input from all the populations impacted. In Teacher Corps networks there are two constituencies. The first is the project directors, who, by virtue of their position, have a unique set of support and service needs not shared by other members of their projects. The second is those people who compose their projects and who represent the primary targets of much of the networks activity. In order for the network to be effective, increasing degrees of trust and a sense of mutual benefit must be developed among these populations, too.

The development of this awareness is aided when the project members have a consistent and meaningful role in network program design and see the network taking steps to be responsive to the needs they identify. In New England, the network sought to provide this role in the following ways:

1. The initial assessment of project needs was conducted by the network executive secretary in a series of project visits. Each role group of each project was interviewed about their role, its demands, and its most critical support needs. The benefit of this exercise was two-fold. First, it provided role groups with an opportunity to discuss their needs and make recommendations of ways they could be accommodated. Second, they provided the executive secretary with an opportunity to get to know the people in the projects and vice versa. These meetings provided a forum for the discussion of the network, its capacities and limitations, and the benefits of cross project collaboration among role groups faced with similar challenges. Also, the data collected from these meetings were summarized and presented to the board of directors for decision-making on program design.
2. As major areas of program development were defined, task forces composed of representatives from target role groups were established. These task forces were charged with the mission of developing an integrated sequence of program activity. Decisions made by these task forces were presented as recommendations to the board of directors.
3. Documentation of activities, products, models and problems was disseminated through activity reports and through the network tabloid. The format of the reports and the tabloid was organized to provide relevant, useful information to all role groups.
4. Each year a conference entitled, "What Has Teacher Corps Taught Us" was held to facilitate product sharing and needs assessment for the coming year.

Through the vehicle of these strategies, the network gradually developed a reputation for being consistently responsive to the needs of project members. This reputation, in turn, facilitated confidence among the members (both directors and role groups) and their desire to be involved in network activities. Also, at the end of each year, as old projects terminated and new ones were funded, the "track record" of the network facilitated the quick involvement of the new projects in network activity.

It is interesting to note that the last role group to seriously address its own development was the directors. In the first year of the network, their energies were primarily directed to the provision of services to their projects. Although numerous sharing and problem solving activities were held for directors, it was not

until a consistent and effective process for accommodating the needs of their projects was established that they turned serious attention to on-going development training for themselves. However, these activities did significantly contribute to the development of networking skills among the directors. As the network became increasingly effective, the directors began to integrate networking concerns (sharing information/skills, etc.) to increasing degrees.

Learnings

Our experiences with networks indicate that certain considerations are fundamental to the effectiveness of this brand of collaboration.

1. Project directors must see the network as their agency, owned equally by each member. Although ultimately those who are most active may assume a greater share of informal ownership and influence, it is imperative that directors "buy into" the concept of networking and assume a functional responsibility for its direction.
2. The ownership issue also triggers the issue of turf. To aid the function of the network and insure its freedom from dominance by a single project, the network should be located at a neutral site. As Cohen and Lorentz have stated, "The setting of the network should always be on "neutral ground." They further state, "A separate office, with an ability to keep doors open to all, is the appropriate base for housing the coordinator and administering the network." Our experience has demonstrated that this separation helps the network belong to everyone and no one. The resulting independence facilitates the leadership function of the network office.
3. The network must function in concert with the work flow of projects. If the network services are offered at the expense of local project efficiency, the benefits realized from those services would be diminished by the disruption of their offering.
4. The network must have flexible capacities. One primary advantage of networking is the ease of adopting new missions and tasks. A network must be able to bend its resources to enable it to respond to a range of ever-

changing needs and concerns. At the same time, it is important that a network adopt a central integrating principle(s) which can function as a mission statement(s) and guide the development of programs. The existence of such a principle(s) will help the network evolve with more order and less chaos.

5. The network participants and staff must develop commitment to and skill in the networking process. As Cohen and Lorentz have stated, "A major objective of looking at Networks as process is to encourage individual expression, self and mutual help." Effective networking is characterized by the function of the networkers as both "givers" and "takers."
6. The network office must have the demonstrated technical capacities to "deliver the goods." A good "track record" generates confidence among the network members which, in turn, facilitates creative thinking, and high quality commitment and involvement. Because the mechanism works, people use it and rely on it. If this confidence in capacity is absent, the scope, ambition, and impact of the network is sharply diminished. This confidence is especially important because the success of a network is largely dependent upon the degree to which its members perceive a potential for benefit.

Conclusion

Heretofore, Teacher Corps networks have been composed solely of two-year cycle projects. These projects were fairly similar in structure, organization, and objectives. This year, the difference between the two-year 12th Cycle projects and the five-year '78 Series projects will present a major challenge to the networks and to the directors to capture, integrate, and capitalize on the difference between these two sets of projects.

One key to the success of this effort will lie in the networks' ability to transcend their structural differences, and in the directors' ability to apply appropriate management technologies to their direction. Although the projects will be different in kind, they will not be different in character. That is, the major aims and functions of the two sets of projects will be parallel. This parallelism will serve to maintain the key balance described earlier: commonality of purpose and diversity of means, perspective, and experience levels. If this balance can be established it will result in an increased achievement of outcomes in projects.